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LELAND·STANFORD·JVNIOR·VNIVERSITY

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From May to August, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XIV.

With an APPENDIX.

" *Paucorum namque est recta cum libertate sententia.*"
Pseudo-Clemens.

VOLUME LXXIV.

LONDON:
Sold by Beckett and Porter, Booksellers, in Pall Mall.
M,DCCC,XIV.

240167

Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXIV.

Page 3. l. 9. from bott. and 14. l. 7. from bott. } for 'Menelaus,' r. Mænalus.
25. l. 11. for 'som,' r. *sun*.
33. l. 1. for $\frac{n\,(n-1)\,c}{1.\ 2.}$ read $\frac{n\,(n-1)}{1.\ 2.}\,c$
34. l. 22. for $R \times$ read $\times R$, and for $S^{c \cdot f} +$ read $S^{c \cdot f} \times$
91. l. 10—12. read thus; 'and the bass-notes, or, more properly speaking, the notes below middle C, are printed in Italics. The bars are expressed by commas, the double bars by periods,' &c.
214. l. 7. from bott. for 'Sin,' r. *Sing*.
311. l. 9. place a comma after 'look.'
349. l. 26-7. for 'Callifatti,' r. *Callifatti*.
444. l. 12. from bott. for 'endanger,' r. *engender*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1814.

ART. I. *Travels in the Morea, Albania, and other Parts of the Ottoman Empire;* comprehending a general Description of those Countries; their Productions; the Manners, Customs, and Commerce of the Inhabitants: a Comparison between the ancient and present State of Greece; and an Historical and Geographical Description of the ancient Epirus. By F. C. Pouqueville, M.D., Member of the Commission of Arts and Sciences, &c. Translated from the French by Anne Plumptre. Illustrated with Engravings. 4to. pp. 482. 2l. 2s. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

THOUGH the title-page omits the necessary information of the date of these travels, we learn from the work itself that they were performed several years before they were communicated to the public; for that the author left France in 1798, in the capacity of a physician belonging to the Commission of Arts and Sciences destined to accompany Bonaparte to Egypt and the East: but that, soon after he landed in Egypt, he lost his health, and was obliged to set out on his return to Italy. Having embarked with other French gentlemen and officers on board a tartan of Leghorn, he had the misfortune to be captured by a Tripoli corsair, and was subsequently landed in the Morea at the port of Navarin, the antient Pylos. War having been by this time declared by the Turks against France in revenge for the invasion of Egypt, he and his companions were treated as prisoners, and marched into the interior of the Morea, and afterward to Constantinople; and the remarks occurring in the course of this involuntary tour form the subject of the first part of the volume. — The second describes the extensive country known by the modern name of Albania, which, in point of limits, nearly corresponds to the antient Epirus: but the observations on this region were not made personally by Dr. P., being the produce of some of his friends and countrymen, who like himself suffered confinement in Turkey, and who put into his hands the materials collected in the course of their peregrinations.

To fall into the power of the Turks, without any prospect of release, was no very desirable circumstance: but the author was disposed to rejoice at whatever relieved him from the dreadful image of African slavery; and he felt a sensible pleasure in treading on classic ground, and in being enabled to contemplate the scenes of the memorable exploits of antiquity. He begins, accordingly, to make a very particular record of his adventures from the time of his being set on shore in the Morea. From the moment of the appearance of the travellers, the Bey of Navarin had cast an eager eye on their baggage, and appropriated to himself and the members of his council every article in it, with the exception of the books; which, appearing to this barbarian to be things of no value, were allowed to remain. The profession of physician, however, soon enabled Dr. P. to enjoy a sort of latitude scarcely compatible with the designation of prisoner; and, being called to attend families of rank, he had a good opportunity of exploring various parts of the country. He commences by an account of the town of Navarin, the streets of which are dirty and narrow, but its port is spacious. In its neighbourhood, is the island of Sphacteria, celebrated as the refuge of eight hundred Spartans in the beginning of the Peloponnesian war. The name of the antient Pylos is retained, it seems, to this day, but the place is a village of sixty houses; and the country around is still arid and sandy, as described by Homer.

From Navarin, the author set out under a strong guard for Tripolizza in Arcadia. He and his companions began their journey by passing Mount Temathia; beholding, at a distance on the right, the sea-port of Coron, built on the site of the antient Colonides, and considered, on account of its harbour and population, as the richest trading town in the Morea. Proceeding towards Arcadia, they entered the plain bordering the Pirnazza, the antient Pamisos, and admired the extent and fertility of the prospect before them. They were now in the month of December, yet the olives were still loaded with fruit, and the leaves of the fig and mulberry trees were only beginning to turn yellow. Vines covered the sides of the surrounding mountains, which consisted of Ithome on the north, and the long range of Taygetus, (or, as it is now called, Pentedaktylon,) on the east. This plain was the most fertile part of the antient Messenia, and the scene of very remarkable actions in the long war between its inhabitants and their more powerful neighbours in Laconia. — Dr. P. and his friends were next taken through the town of Andreossa, or Androussa, a place of modern date, beautifully situated at the foot of a mountain. The inhabitants, however, like many in this region, belong to the class of *mauvais sujets*; in plain English, they are little else than robbers by profession. The Albanian escort treated the natives with very little ceremony, being accustomed to turn them and their furniture out of their houses to make room for their own accommodation.

commodation. Proceeding in a northern direction, the travellers had an opportunity of seeing troops of wild boars, from which their dogs found it necessary to keep a respectful distance. They soon afterward crossed the ample stream of the Pamisos, over a bridge of four arches, and saw at a distance the town of Mauromathi, situated a little to the eastward of the antient Messene. A journey of fourteen or fifteen miles from the Pamisos brought them to the foot of the ridge of Taygetus; and, on ascending the high ground, they perceived, in the looks of the inhabitants, symptoms of health and vigour in a higher degree than that in which those blessings are allotted to their brethren in the plains. The travellers here passed the pleasant village of Leondari, the Peloponnesian Leudra; near which are the sources of the Eurotas, or Vasilipotamos, as it is called by the modern Greeks. Proceeding to the rich and spacious plain of Tegea, they beheld, at some distance, the sources of the Alpheus, and arrived at last at Tripolizza, where they remained several months.

Arcadia and Achaia. — At Tripolizza, Dr. P. had an opportunity of appearing in the character of a physician, and of travelling through the surrounding district to gratify his literary curiosity. He thus made an extensive survey of the neighbouring country, and had an ample opportunity of observing the erroneous statements of the geographers of modern Greece. He saw likewise many melancholy vestiges of the ravages of the Albanian soldiers, who were called into the Morea in the war of 1770 to resist the Russians. On the defeat and re-embarkation of the latter, the Albanians still continued to treat the Morea as a hostile country, and did not cease to plunder until they could get little to gratify their cupidity. At that fatal epoch, the towns throughout the province of Faneri (the territory of the antient Megalopolis,) were sacked, and the mountains and vallies of Messenia were strewed with dead bodies. Tripolizza, the present capital of the Morea, and residence of the Pacha, is said to be built from the ruins of Megalopolis, Tegea, Mantinea, and Pallantium, without being on the site of any of those places. It stands in a spacious valley, at the foot of Mount Menelaus, twenty-five miles west of Argos, ten south of Mantinea, and nearly three north of Tegea. In its mosques, are many precious antique columns and inscriptions, introduced into the modern buildings in a very unskilful manner. — Like other towns in the Morea, it rose in insurrection on seeing the Russian flag wave over the country, and three thousand of its inhabitants are said to have been the victims of this rashness. The adjacent plain is so extensive as to contain seventy-two villages, and to present one of the finest prospects in Greece.

Though the site of Mantinea is now a marsh, some vestiges of the walls still remain; which seem to have been about eighteen feet in thickness, and to have surrounded an oval space of about a league in circumference. The town appears to have had four principal gates, leading to as many roads in the respective directions of Arcadia, Argos, Tegea, and Megalopolis. The marsh of the present days has been formed by the bed of a stream called Ophis being choaked up; and this stream, after a course of a few miles, is lost in a gulf answering to one of the subterranean caverns of Mount Mænalus. Here, as at the lake of Lerna, much difficulty occurs in ascertaining the depth of water, because the feet sink into the ground on approaching its borders.

The modern town of Patras stands on the site of the antient Aroe, in an amphitheatre at a little distance from the entrance of the Gulf of Lepanto; and the largest vessels can anchor here under shelter of the mountains of Epirus to the north, and of those of Peloponnesus on the south. Easterly and westerly winds are comparatively little feared in this latitude, and at Patras their force is broken by the direction of the bay. The town contains a number of Jews; who, as usual, make themselves very active in every thing that relates to business. The country around is rich in fruit, particularly in grapes and olive trees. To the north, the prospect is extensive: but, in the south it is circumscribed by a mountain in the immediate neighbourhood. The town, however, is in a state of rapid decay, in consequence of its great insalubrity.—Dr. P. is fond of declamation, and would, on no account, omit the occasion of pouring out (p. 53.) a high-sounding eulogium on the heroism of the Christians who fell three centuries ago, at the battle of Lepanto, contending against the Turks. 'With what cries,' he says, 'must the shores have resounded before the roar of cannon dealt out death to both parties!' This effusion, though abrupt, is nothing to some that occur in other parts of the book. In one passage, (p. 27.) the reader is startled by a sudden apostrophe to 'Apollo, King of the Menades, and to the deities of the Eurotas.' The appeal to these personages is soon succeeded by a pathetic description of the palpitations of Dr. P.'s heart when he was searching for the ruins of Mantinea. It is fair, however, to add, that he had made a kind of general salvo for these ebullitions in his preface. 'If I should be accused,' he says, 'of mingling imagery too liberally with my descriptions, I must entreat the reader to recollect that I was travelling over the classic spots which inspired the great poets of antiquity, and that I wished to paint the manners of the Arcadians in all their genuine simplicity and *naiveté*.'

When he chuses to drop his figures, the author is a clear and accurate describer of localities. From Tripolizza, he proceeded in quest of the site of Megalopolis, which was for some time considered to be Leondari, but which is now admitted to be the modern Sinano; and the identity of the latter is established by the remains of the different roads which united at Megalopolis. The ruins of a church and of the stadium are still discernible, but the town is a wretched representative of its predecessor, and consists merely of an assemblage of miserable huts of mud or clay. Caritena, which appears to stand in the situation of the antient Gorthys, is a healthy and comfortable place, the population being between 2000 and 3000, and almost exclusively Greek. All the villages in this district are built on the slope of mountains; on account of the frequent inundations of the Alpheus, and for protection from the Laliote plunderers, who make frequent incursions hither from Mount Pholoe. It has been asserted that no remains of the celebrated city of Olympia could now be traced: but M. Fauvel, a friend of Dr. Pouqueville, has described with much minuteness (pp. 65, 66.) a variety of relics which appear to leave no doubt of the identity of the spot. He fixes it near the conflux of the small river Cladeus and the more copious stream of the Alpheus. In the course of his investigations, he was much delighted on discovering that the inhabitants called the neighbouring village Andilalo, or "Village of the Echo;" a circumstance remarkably connected with the observation of Pausanias, that the Greeks attending the Olympic games were accustomed to listen to an echo which repeated the sound seven times over. Were the surface of the ground dug up, it is probable that many vestiges of Olympia would be found hidden under the sand and earth which have been accumulated by the incessant overflowings of the Alpheus. This river, bringing down soil from the sides of the mountains, with leaves and other vegetable substances, has in the course of ages raised the ground near its banks, and even at a considerable distance from them, to the height of several feet; which operation has been going on ever since the abandoned state of the country caused the neglect of the mounds that, in better days, preserved the adjacent plains from inundation.

Laconia.—The author's attention was particularly directed to Maina, the mountain-district in the eastern part of Laconia; the inhabitants of which have in every age bidden defiance to the invaders of the rest of Greece. So far back as the time of the Romans, they bore the name of Ελευθεροι Λακόνιοι, and the Turkish pashas have in vain endeavoured to reduce them to subjection. Their territory consists chiefly of the extensive ridge of mountains known by the general name of Taygetus; their population

tion is computed at 40,000; and their men at only one fourth, or 10,000. They cherish an implacable hatred to the Turks, and an ardent predilection for any nation, whether French or Russian, of whom they hear as taking part in hostilities against the Ottoman empire. It is in vain to beset their defiles, or to attempt to subdue them; they are animated by an unconquerable spirit, and never fail to make their assailants repent the invasion. He who travels in the plain by night sees proofs of their vigilance, in the fires which are lighted along their stations on the mountains. Their chiefs are chosen by the public voice, and owe their elevation to the splendor of their exploits:

> 'The young Maïnotti, accustomed from their infancy to the use of arms, inured to fatigues, familiarised with dangers, are always ready to measure their strength against that of the Turks. The very name, indeed, of a Turk inspires them with fury. Their courage, or perhaps it may be called temerity, is doubtless increased by the perfect knowledge they have of the natural strength of their country, of the advantages it possesses in its defiles, where an enemy very much superior in numbers to themselves may be effectually resisted. A stroke has not unfrequently been suddenly planned at a meal, and executed at the same moment, almost always with complete success. The innate love of rapine, the image of poverty, the exaggerated ideas they form to themselves of the riches of the Mussulmans, and the profound hatred they bear them, are amply sufficient to urge them on, when their imaginations are the least exalted, to any undertaking.'

So far we recognize the commendable characteristics of a people determined to be independent: but an additional inquiry exhibits the unpleasant side of the picture:

> 'By an unfortunate fatality, these chiefs, always restless and ambitious, keep their cantons in a habitual state of discord. It is only when their common danger unites them that the Maïnotti appear in a favourable point of view: in their ordinary habits they must be objects of aversion to every one who has the happiness of having been born in a civilized country.'—
>
> 'United among themselves when they have a foreign enemy to combat, the Maïnotti as soon as the danger is past are seen to abandon themselves to dissensions at home, which often terminate in dyeing their hands with blood. Implacable in their hatred as in their vengeance, they are only brought to relinquish the one or the other by the voice of the most respectable old men in the canton.'

Unhappily for the navigator, the inhabitants of the coast of Laconia partake largely of the bad features of their countrymen in the interior. Speaking of Kolokina or Kolokythia, the place at which the Eurotas empties itself into the sea, Dr. P. remarks;

'The entrance of the river is navigable at all times for pretty large barks, and they should follow the right bank in going up the stream. The bay of Laconia is dangerous to European vessels that are not very much upon their guard, as it is the usual retreat of the plunderers which this cape sends forth. These marauders set sail at the close of day from some of the ports of this inhospitable coast, and rove about in the neighbourhood of Cerigo to seek for their prey. Woe to those navigators who are without arms, or who, indulging in a deceitful tranquillity, suffer themselves to sleep! they are massacred without pity.—

'A Greek vessel of Cephalonia, carrying the Russian flag, and having on board the contributions of the Morea for the combined armies before Corfu, was overtaken by a tempest in the latitude of Cerigo. No longer in a state to keep the sea, it was constrained to run into Porto Vitilon on the western coast of Maïna. It had no sooner entered here than it was assailed by the Maïnotti, and every passenger on board, to whatever nation or sect he belonged, was completely plundered. The very women swam up to the vessel to partake in the spoils, and some were even drowned in returning, from the weight of the booty they were carrying away. The Turks who were on board were worse treated than the rest; for the Maïnotti, after having destroyed the vessel, exposed them to sale: the Greeks got off only with the loss of all their property. I was some time after in a vessel where one of them was among the number of the sailors, and he was still so terrified with the recollection of the adventure, that he scarcely could give me the account of it.'

The natives of the southern shores of Laconia, who commit these robberies, are distinguished by the significant name of Cacovouniotes, and are a distinct tribe from their inland neighbours, the Mainots. A third class, considerably less ferocious, inhabits the town of Mistra and the adjacent vallies. Mistra, which contains 15,000 inhabitants, is situated at the distance of a mile and a half from the spot on which Sparta stood, and is formed from the ruins of that far-famed city. The streets of Mistra are narrow, dirty, and built on uneven ground: but the trees surrounding the houses have a pleasant appearance. The Eurotas is between 100 and 200 feet wide, and is crossed here by a stone-bridge of six arches. In summer, it almost hides itself among the reeds growing on its banks: but in winter, on the melting of the snow in the mountains, or on the occurrence of heavy rain, its bed is soon filled, and it rushes down with a grand and impetuous torrent. The lofty chain of Taygetus supplies the streams which feed the Eurotas, and may be considered as the great natural bulwark of Laconia on the west. This ridge, in its whole length from the centre of the Peloponnesus to Cape Tenarus or Matapan, extends nearly seventy miles. The modern Greeks give it the name of Pentedaktylon, from the conspicuous appearance of five particular summits. Two leagues south of the site of Sparta, is a celebrated defile or passage called "The Gates," by which the Lacedæmonians were accustomed to march their troops to the invasion of Messenia; and a pass, somewhat similar, divided on the north the respective territories of Tegea and Sparta. Both defiles were known by the name of Hermeum, from a statue of Mercury which was placed in a central part of each.

The people of Mistra and the neighbourhood, though not quite so independent as their countrymen on the hills, are much less in a state of subjection to the Turks than the Greeks to the northward:

'They are tall in stature, their features are masculine and regular; they are the only Greeks of the Morea who look up to the Turks with an eye of manly confidence, as if feeling themselves their equals; nor can this be otherwise, as they are brave even to rashness. Why am I obliged to add that they have an innate inclination to rapine, which, joined to a sort of natural ferocity, renders them extremely vindictive and dangerous?'—

'The Laconians differ as much in manners as in dress from the Arcadians their neighbours. The latter carry the scrip and the crook, and lead a perfectly pastoral life; the inhabitants of Sparta, on the contrary, sing of combats, are of a lively and restless character, and easily irritated. The Arcadian, attached to his valleys and his rivulets, sees nothing beyond his own horizon: the Laconian, more haughty, endowed with greater energy, has no wish so dear to his heart as to see the Turks humiliated. The one, clothed in white woollen spun and wove by the hands of his wife and daughters, makes mats, draws the oil from his olives, presses the juice from his grapes, milks his ewes and his goats, brings the produce of his industry to sell in the town, and, content with the little gains that they procure him, returns peaceably and contentedly to his bowers. The neighbour of Taygetes manufactures arms, clothes himself with stuffs, the dark colours of which are emblematic of his character, handles the ax, mingles with caravans, goes on military expeditions, seeks dangers, and in them seems to find his true element.'

Argolis.—In the course of his progress eastward, Dr. P. visited Argos, Mycenæ, and the site of Lerna. Of these, Argos is at present the only considerable place; and an attentive search would probably be rewarded by the discovery of several interesting reliques. On the side of Argos that looks towards the forest of Nemea are a number of mounds, where fragments of bas-reliefs are occasionally discovered. To the east of the town flows the Planizza, the antient Inachus; and, as the town stands on the declivity of a hill, it commands a noble view over the gulf which once bore its name, but which is now called the Gulf of Nauplia. The population of Argos is nearly 10,000, of whom three-fourths are Greeks; and the chief trade, as in former days, is in horses. Mycenæ is only a few miles from Argos, and retains enough of the remains of antiquity to mark its site. Lerna is distant about six miles from Argos, and is at present a mere village to the northward of its celebrated marsh or lake. The soil around this marsh is a sort of peat, covered with reeds, so that it is dangerous to approach the water, and difficult in fact to determine at what part it acquires a depth sufficient to intitle it to the name of lake. In breadth, it is inconsiderable, not exceeding a hundred yards. It is evidently formed by the waters from the neighbouring mountains, and is kept at a level by a rivulet which flows out of it, and soon falls into the bay of Argos. The village of Lerna is a place of some trade, but is afflicted with all the unhealthiness of a marshy district; the inhabitants having a sallow look, and being subject to intermittent fevers.

Manners and Character.—After these topographical remarks, the author proceeds to delineate the character of the Greeks, at least of those of the Morea, to whom indeed his observation was chiefly confined. Here he appears to hold a proper medium between the unfavourable reports of M. de Pauw, and the too flattering opinion of M. Guys, who imagined that he had found antient Greeks in the abodes of their forefathers. In point of personal appearance, the Moreans are well made, robust, distinguished by animated features, gay, fond of amusement, and make themselves agreeable companions, their conversation abounding with ornament and metaphors. On the other hand, they have no regard to veracity, and perjure themselves without scruple for a trifling advantage in trade or otherwise. They express their hatred to the Turks in a strain of great exaggeration, and they affect to talk in a similar manner of their love of liberty: but the fact is that they are strangers to zeal of any kind, except in behalf of their religion. Believing, like their Mohammedan oppressors, in predestination, they are ready to sacrifice the Turks without scruple in a moment of success; and, when fortune becomes unfavourable, they bow their own necks to the slaughter, in the full assurance that they are earning a crown of martyrdom. Such was the case throughout the Morea, during the unfortunate invasion of the Russians in the war of 1770.—With all this hatred of the Turks, they bear a still greater jealousy and dislike to the Catholics; a jealousy most assiduously cherished by their priests, who are continually alarming them with the maledictions that are uttered by the Pope against all who are not of the number of his disciples. The community of religion may be at a future time a considerable bond of union between them and the Russians, since we may take it for granted that the triumphs of their church will be always their chief incitement to insurrection.

A great obstacle to the improvement of this country consists in the unfortunate circumstance that the instruments of exaction for the Turks, the Codja-bachis, are generally selected from the Greeks, which has the effect of creating division among themselves; and if to this we add the spirit of intrigue and quarreling, which seems to be innate in the Greeks, we must entertain but very limited hopes of their acting with union. Dr. Pouqueville is somewhat more courteous to the Morean females, among whom he was able to trace several of the models which called forth the powers of Apelles and Phidias. The portion of labour to which they are subjected is moderate, and the climate of the Morea is pure and vivifying. Rarely, he says, does a widow think of contracting a second engagement. The Greek women, however, he admits, are miserably destitute of knowlege, and keep up conversation only by a natural vivacity of imagination. They believe almost invariably in sorcery, and pay money to gipsey fortune-tellers, with as much credulity as if these impostors were the oracles of fate. They are unacquainted even with the proper method of house-keeping, being much sequestered from society after they are grown up. — The men retain most of the exercises of antiquity, with the exception of the *discus*: they practise wrestling exactly in the manner described by Homer; and the rage for dancing is almost universal. Rhapsodists still exist among them, who celebrate the exploits of warriors in songs, accompanied by the lyre: but several of their airs are borrowed from the Italians. The Albanian Greeks, too, have their music, but it is wild and barbarous, like the people by whom it is used. One of its favourite subjects is the expression of contempt for the Turks; since, though the Albanians have professedly adopted the Mohammedan mode of worship, they take every opportunity of shewing their alienation from their Ottoman brethren.

M. Pouqueville devotes a chapter (p. 163.) to the modern Greek language, and to the present state of knowlege among those who speak it. He is less hostile to the accent of the present day, than those whose taste is formed on the pronunciation which is acquired at our schools and colleges. Many persons, and we confess ourselves to be of the number, have experienced mortification on hearing the sonorous diphthongs of the Greeks stripped of their melody in the mouths of the present inhabitants of the country: but Dr. P. maintains that the accent is still pleasant and harmonious. 'Every man with an unprejudiced mind and a musical ear would turn away,' he says, 'from the scholar, to indulge in the delight of hearing the orations of

Demosthenes, the sweet modulations of Anacreon, or the sublime descriptions of the bard of Ilion, read by a Greek even of the present times. It is by associating this pronunciation with the happy rhythm of the antient Greeks, that one can conceive how an orator could captivate an audience by merely reading his productions.' Great diversity in pronunciation, however, exists between the Chian, Smyrnian, and Constantinopolitan accent; the consequence of which is that the modern language appears to differ more from the antient than it does in fact. Young Greeks of good family occasionally travel into foreign countries for the study of medicine, and generally return considerably improved. The books hitherto translated into their language, from the publications of the rest of Europe, are insignificant: they have been printed chiefly at Venice and Vienna, and have passed through a double ordeal, the Inquisition, and the Turkish police. The true method of aiming at the re-establishment of Grecian independence is to improve the system of education; and their priests seem the only persons likely to be efficient in promoting this desirable object. A corresponding progress in manufactures, and in agriculture, would be a necessary preliminary: but it is no easy matter to say how property of any kind can be increased, under such a government as that which at present rules these people; it being a fact that the magistrates and soldiers, who are appointed to restrain disorders, are themselves frequently the authors of them.' Can we wonder, therefore, that the peaceful arts should be neglected, in spite of one of the most favourable climates in the range of the temperate zone?

Climate. — The air of the Morea holds a medium between the scorching heat of Egypt and the cold of the northern part of Europe; its winter is short, and a beneficent dew fertilizes the soil in the early days of spring. The prevalence of unhealthiness is local, and is chiefly to be ascribed to the long and miserable neglect of cultivation. While in the course of ages the rivers have overflowed and formed vast marshes, the woods have been destroyed by the shepherds, and the hills consequently deprived in a great measure of fructifying showers. The winter in Greece comes on with falls of rain, and thunder-storms; the cold beginning to be felt in December, but not being severe until January. In February, vegetation returns, and spring may be said to begin with the first days of March. The summer is fully set in by the month of May, and continues to October. At this time, much unhealthiness prevails in particular situations; such as the low grounds of Elis, or the valley of Argos, with its rice-grounds, and poppy-fields. Other places, such as Coron on the coast of Messenia, Caritena in the interior, and elevated spots in

Laconia, are in general exempt from the visitation of maladies. In October, the rains come on, and seem to bring with them a kind of new spring. Unfortunately, the water in many parts of Greece is not pure, the wells being frequently shallow, and having the bad qualities of marsh-waters. In winter, they are troubled, and overflow; in the dry season, they are either exhausted or fetid. The water of the rivers is fit for use only in the latter part of winter and the early part of spring; the channels being at one time filled with quantities of sand and mud, at another almost dry, or affording little else than stagnant pools.

The state of medical knowlege in Greece is very ill calculated to counteract the effects of unhealthy situations; the chief practitioners being travelling doctors, of Italian origin, who assume the plausible name of καλοι ἰατροι, or "good physicians:"

'They are very expert at making widows and orphans; but the indolent Turk, though he is the daily witness of their feats in this way, regards them only as the ministers of *fate*, feasts them and pays them, nor thinks of imputing their want of success in the healing art to any thing but an immutable fatality. Under the shelter of this prejudice, the *caloiatros* continues to practise his art, and to reap the harvest of it. He is accompanied by a servant, who executes the several offices of interpreter, page, steward, and puffer; and who, trained up in the secrets of his master's art, after a few years sets up for himself as a successor of the great Hippocrates.'—

'The *caloiatros* in chief of Tripolitza, the father of the wandering faculty, was a Greek who sold tobacco at the bazar. He had been cook in a public-house at Montpellier, and had a variety of specifics and amulets for relieving pain.—A good dose of jalap, of manna, or of Glauber salts, and above all bleeding, (for nothing is to be done without bleeding,) are their great weapons, so that one might conclude them to be of the same faculty with Moliere's physician. No less impudent than ignorant, they are continually boasting of the cures they have performed at such or such a place, taking care however that it shall always be one at a considerable distance; to hear them talk you would suppose that they bleed without its being perceived, and draw a tooth with the point of a stiletto. There is not a town in the Levant, be it ever so inconsiderable, that has not its Æsculapius. In confidence and perjury they do not yield to the Greeks; and too much of the same species to have any complacency towards each other: no one ever mentions a brother but in terms of the most sovereign contempt. They are besides for the most part conjurors, nay, by an extraordinary combination of talents, almost any thing that may be desired of them.'

Albania.—We conclude our extracts from Dr. P.'s work with some passages in which he describes the character of the modern inhabitants of Epirus;

'The Albanians, who may be called the Scythians of the Turkish empire, have but few wants. I speak here of the people in the country. Their houses are in general nothing more than a ground-floor; and they sleep upon mats or thick cloaks. Little sensible to the variations of the atmosphere, they lead an equally laborious life the whole year through. Contented with a little, they live principally upon milk, cheese, eggs, olives, and vegetables: they eat very little meat, occasionally fish, or salt-fish. Sometimes they make bread; but often eat their corn or maize only boiled. —

'The Albanian shepherds, who are equally warriors, are clothed in a sort of coarse woollen stuffs, for the most part never wearing linen; or, if worn, it is never changed, but left till it falls off in rags. Sober and active, they are contented in their journeys, or when at their labour, with a little boiled rice or corn, while singing, dancing, and gaiety seem all the relaxation they desire from fatigue.'—

'The Albanians are seldom less than five feet nine inches in height, and are extremely strong and muscular. They have oval faces, large mustachios, a great deal of colour in their cheeks, a brisk animated eye, a well-proportioned mouth, and fine teeth. The neck is long, and the chest broad; the leg slender, and with very little calf.

'Thus formed to endure fatigue, and to engage in distant expeditions, the Albanians or Arnaouts form a part of the military corps in every province or district of the Turkish empire, from the shores of the Euphrates to the mouths of the Drino. In Egypt they have become celebrated. They are well known among the Barbary states; nor have they scrupled to associate themselves with the turbulent rebels who infest Romelia. The trade of a brigand excites no blush in them, since it is accompanied with danger; and they vaunt their prowess no less in these predatory expeditions, than in those to which real glory is attached.—

'The women who bring this race of semi-barbarians into the world partake in the vigour of their organization. They do not live in the indolence of harems, but labour hard; and no less than the men eat their bread with the sweat of their brow, frequently even sharing the dangers encountered by their husbands and their sons. Their features are strong; their muscles firm, and endowed with great elasticity: they are therefore little subject to disease, and preserve the freshness of youth much longer than the women of Greece. They continue to become mothers till an equally advanced period of life with the women in more northern countries. They sleep upon the same mats with their husbands, are like them clothed in coarse woollen garments, and often march with their legs naked during the most rigorous cold of Albanian winters.—

'Besides the bravery which is natural to the Albanians, they have a frankness of character not common among the eastern nations: they show their esteem or contempt for any one equally without disguise and reserve.—Their openness of character is carried so far, that they never think of dissembling their views when they endeavour to obtain any post. Money is their object, and this they freely avow.—

'As bad Mahometans as they are brave soldiers, they show extreme negligence with regard to the external ceremonies of their worship, and believe as little in the Prophet as in Jesus Christ: they more frequently, indeed, make their asseverations in the august name of the latter. It seems not a little extraordinary to hear the words *Maton Theon*, *Maton Christon*, perpetually coming from the mouth of men who profess the faith of the Koran.'—

'The Greeks who inhabit Albania, though perfectly distinguishable from the native Albanians, have more of the habits of barbarism than the people of the southern provinces of Greece, and of the Greek islands. They even lose here a part of that duplicity and want of honour of which they are generally accused. This may probably arise from their feeling more strongly, among so independent a race, the dignity of their nature, and from their not being obliged to degrade themselves so low in crouching at the feet of an oppressor.'

This publication will be found to contain a great number of useful observations; and the mind that has dictated them is evidently calculated to feel the grandeur of the scenes which it contemplated. Unluckily, however, with Dr. P., as with many other Frenchmen, the exercise of intellect is not in proportion to that of the imagination; and the reader, who takes for granted all that the author chuses to believe, will have the mortification of frequently finding himself in error. In the very beginning, Dr. P. tells us (p. 10.) of the *massacre* of the Lacedæmonians in the island of Sphacteria: though here was no massacre, but a regular attack, at the end of which the three hundred Lacedæmonians, who survived out of the four hundred and twenty that were originally cooped up in the island, were carried prisoners to Athens. In another passage, (p. 81.) Dr. P. gravely declares that Athens would have been utterly destroyed by the Spartans, 'if some verses from the Electra of Sophocles had not disarmed their general Lysander.' As well might he have said that the repetition from Ossian of Fingal's lamentation on the evils of war would have induced Bonaparte, in his days of success, to turn his sword into a ploughshare. Lysander was not less of a calculating politician than the Corsican ruler of France. In addition to these historical inaccuracies *, we observe various delinquencies of a minor cast: such as Taygetes for Taygetus, Pamissus for Pamisos, Menale for Mount Menelaus, and a woeful inaccuracy in Greek printing, (p. 102.) which must be shared, we apprehend, between the printer and the fair translator. Still, the volume will be read with interest; and it is satisfactory to find that the Morea exhibits to an attentive traveller a much richer field of observation, than we might expect from the depreciating tone and meagre reports of those who, like Mr. Galt, having passed through the country as they would hasten through a province of Poland or Russia, pronounce at once that it contains very little worth notice. — The work is ornamented with eight engravings and a map; and the translation is, with some exceptions, generally well executed.

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* We may have occasion to refer again to this point, in reviewing Mr. Hobhouse's Travels in Albania; that gentlemen having disputed some of M. Pouqueville's representations and conjectures.

ART. II. *A Sketch of Modern and Antient Geography*[*], for the Use of Schools. By Samuel Butler, D.D., Head Master of the Royal Free Grammar School of Shrewsbury. Second Edition. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

IN our xixth Volume, p. 542., and in our xxvth Volume, p. 569., we gave an account of a German treatise on Antient Geography, which apeared to us the best recent work on the subject, and to deserve imitation in our own country for the use of our own schools. We have now the pleasure of seeing this wish realized, and can announce to our readers a respectable vernacular concise introduction to antient geography. The elementary work in common use is Patrick's Abridgement of the *Notitia Orbis antiqui* of Cellarius: but, as Cellarius attends too little to chronology, and describes, as if they were contemporaneous, various successive places of the antique world; and as the light thrown by D'Anville on classical geography had not shone on Cellarius, and is consequently not displayed in his Syllabus; it was certainly not superfluous to make another sketch of this region of literature. Besides, no English translation existed even of Patrick; and that which is to be learnt only in Latin escapes the inferior scholars of every school, and the inferior schools of every country. A certain quantity of antient geography should be acquired even by ladies; so far at least as that they may know by their classical names the principal rivers, provinces, and cities of the world, when mentioned by the historian or the poet: to them, therefore, an English volume on the subject will be welcome.

The quickest and clearest way of teaching antient geography would perhaps be to compose a series of chronological maps. Delineate, for instance, the Parthian peninsula, comprehending Natolia, Palestine, Arabia, Mesopotamia, &c., according to its earliest nomenclature and condition, as described in the Scriptures a thousand years before Christ: give a second map of the same district, according to its nomenclature and condition five hundred years before Christ; and a third map as in the time of our Saviour. Thus the changes produced in the chosen seat of primeval civilization, first by the conquests of Cyrus and then by the conquests of Alexander, would be immediately sensible to the eye; and the history of the Assyrian nations would be acquired almost at a glance.

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[*] We should rather have said *Antient* and *Modern* Geography.

Now it is only concerning the Assyrian world, the Greek world, and the Roman world, that such historical charts of topographical nomenclature are necessary to the classical scholar; the mountains, rivers, latitudes, longitudes, and remarkable ruins of the district, except perhaps in Palestine, being tolerably well known: so that the toil would not be immense in preparing the requisite delineations of the old world at successive periods. It was fabled of Enceladus that, during the war of the Titans, Jupiter flung Mount Ætna on his breast; and, that, oppressed with the weight, he fell asleep: but that, once in three or four centuries, he awakes, and stirs, and examines his confinement. We want such an Enceladus for our atlas; and we much wish that a collection of maps, constructed on this chronological principle, had accompanied the present author's literary sketch.

A table of dates, however, opens the work: but this is a mere transcript from Blair's Chronology, without the local insertion of those corrections which the progress of historical research, and of Scripture-criticism, is constantly rendering necessary. For instance, the Jewish captivity, which took place under Cyrus, is here dated nearly seventy years too soon:—Hesiod, who had not read Homer, is made to flourish later than Homer;—and the building of Carthage is given as an ascertained date. The newest and perhaps most plausible theory of this last doubtful incident is, that Dido was the widow of Ethbaal, King of Tyre, and headed a colony which was expelled by the siege described in Ezekiel.—An epocha is sometimes made of a trifling and sometimes of an imaginary event. Thus A. D. 209, we here read, *Severus builds his wall in Britain:* but Mannert, in his learned and critical Antient Geography, says that no adequate testimony exists of Severus having built any wall. These are minute things; yet still they indicate some neglect of the surrounding state of knowlege, and some indifference about inculcating error.

The first part of the book is a sketch of modern geography, which occupies only sixty-eight pages. Pinkerton, the Strabo of our age, is properly made or at least named as the chief guide: but any attempt to compress Pinkerton into four sheets of letter-press must somewhat resemble the magic of the Arabian sorceress, who changed the entire empire of the King of the Black Isles into a fish-pond near her habitation.—A long but meagre list of multifarious proper names, in which the peculiar and characteristic features of each place are but rarely indicated, is of some value to the memory, if marshalled according to imperial distribution, but is not likely to subsist there with a due sense of proportionate and discriminating value.

The following delineation of the religions of Europe may serve as a specimen of this portion of the work:

'The Church of England is commonly called a Lutheran church, but whoever compares it with the Lutheran churches on the Continent, will have reason to congratulate himself on its superiority. It is in fact a church *sui generis*, yielding in point of dignity, purity, and decency in its doctrines, establishments, and ceremonies, to no congregation of Christians in the world; modelled to a certain and considerable extent, but not entirely, by our great and wise pious Reformers, on the doctrines of Luther, so far as they are in conformity with the sure and solid foundation on which it rests, and we trust for ever will rest, the authority of the Holy Scriptures, Jesus Christ himself being the chief corner stone.

'Other Lutheran churches are those of the North of Europe, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, and the North of Germany.

'Martin Luther, the great Reformer, was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, A.D. 1483; was summoned to Rome for preaching against Indulgences, A.D. 1518; excommunicated by the Pope A.D. 1520; threw off his monastic habit A.D. 1524; married A.D. 1525; died A.D. 1546. His great protector on the Continent was the Elector of Saxony.

'John Calvin, whose real name was Chauvin, was born at Noyon, in Picardy, A.D. 1509. The persecution of the Protestants in France obliged him to fly to Geneva, where he established his system, and died A.D. 1564.

'Among the leading features of Calvinism are belief in Predestination, Election and Reprobation, and Irresistible Grace, together with the rejection of Episcopacy; instead of which Calvin proposed that the Church should be governed by presbyteries and synods, composed of clergy and laity, without bishops or any clerical superiority. Hence Calvinistic churches are also called Presbyterian. The following churches are Calvinistic: Scotland, Holland, and Geneva.

'Protestants are subdivided into numerous other sects, which it is unnecessary to particularize.

'The Roman Catholic church contains many errors, which were gradually introduced into it by the continually increasing thirst of the Popes for temporal power. Among their principal errors, renounced and opposed by the Protestants, are Transubstantiation, or a belief that the consecrated wafer, or Host, as it is called, (from *Hostia* a victim,) are absolutely changed in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper into the real and substantial body and blood of Christ; Purgatory, or the intermediate state of punishment between this life and the final judgment, from whence the souls of men can be delivered by the prayers, or alms, or penances of the faithful; the Intercession of Saints; the Worship of the Virgin Mary; Miraculous Interpositions; the Celibacy of the Clergy: — against these, and many other idle, superstitious, or erroneous doctrines, and against the Supremacy and Infallibility of the Pope, the Reformed Churches *Protest*, and are therefore called *Protestant* Churches. The Popes formerly claimed the supreme dominion in things spiritual and temporal over all the Sovereigns of the earth, by virtue of being themselves the immediate vicars or vicegerents of God. — It is but justice to the Roman Catholics to add, that these high pretensions, generally known under the name of the dispensing and deposing powers, (or the power of the Pope to *dispense* with the oath of allegiance from the subject to the Sovereign, and to *depose* the Sovereign in case of heresy,) have been formally disavowed by the six principal Catholic Universities, consulted for that purpose in the year 1788.

'The following countries are Roman Catholic: France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Austria, nearly the whole of the Southern German States, Belgium, and part of Switzerland.

'The King is the head of the Church of England. The established Religion of Ireland is that of the Church of England; but the mass of the population is Roman Catholic.

'The Greek Church is derived from the Greek Christians, who formed the Eastern division of the Roman Empire, the capital of which was Constantinople. Hence it is also called the Eastern, in contradistinction to the Romish or Western Church, from which it differs in many unimportant points of discipline, but few very material points of doctrine. The Patriarch of Constantinople is head of the Greek Church, which comprehends the Russians and Greeks, whether on the Continent or in the Grecian Islands.

'Mahometanism is a form of religion engrafted on the Jewish and Christian dispensations by the impostor Mahomet, who was born A.D. 571, at Mecca, in Arabia, and died A.D. 632. The Mahometans acknowledge the divine missions of Moses and of Christ; but maintain that these were ineffectual to convert mankind, and that none but faithful Mussulmen, or Mahometans, will be entitled to future happiness, which they believe will consist in a paradise of sensual delights. They are also believers in predestination. The doctrines of Mahomet are to be found in the Coran, which may be called the Mahometan Bible.'

In describing the sects of Europe, some pious notice was surely due to our universal parent, the Jewish religion. The professors of that primeval faith are scattered in considerable numbers over the whole surface of the world; and they are said to be so numerous in the newly acquired settlement of Surinam, that it may become the duty of a British parliament to establish there this antient persuasion, and to give a salary to a rabbinical church. As the Christian sects grow old, the hereditary shape of the bones begins to appear through the skin; and a family-likeness to the common progenitor is more and more visible on every fresh attempt at reformation.

Part ii. of this work is more important and better executed than the first: it is intitled *Geographia classica*, or the application of antient geography to the classics.

A definition of the extent of territorial surface known to the antients constitutes the business, or employment, of the first chapter; which is very short, and which undervalues the topographical information of antiquity. Vincent, or Rennell, or even the superficial Robertson, might have served to caution the author against under-rating the recorded observations of the old world: the more we explore the forsaken routes, the more accurate we find the notices of them which are preserved.

Chapter ii. treats of antient Italy. An arrangement indicated by the successive progress of civilization would have been more natural. D'Anville's *L'Euphrate et le Tigre*, which was the first map for commentary, includes the starting-place of the earliest pastoral clans which separated into distinct nations. It would have been well to enumerate the provinces specified in Genesis (ch. x.), and the trading towns which adorned them in the time of Ezekiel, (ch. xxvi. to xxviii.); and to examine the Ægypt of the Pharaohs and the holy land of Joshua. In short, we should have begun, had the task of Dr. Butler devolved on us, with what may be called scriptural geography, under the guidance of Bochart's *Phaleg and Canaan*, and of the corrective *Spicilegium* of Michaelis. We should have endeavoured to restore the geography of Daniel, who may be supposed to have divided Persia anew for Darius Hystaspes. We should then have passed on to the Greek world, which next became conspicuous on the theatre of human events, and in the arena of intellectual competition. We should have been patiently curious in defining the bounds of those petty republics, which disputed with parish-patriotism the relative merit of their boxers and orators, which trained the warriors of Leonidas and Alexander, and which adorned human literature with the productions of Homer and of Demosthenes. The geographical information of the Greeks was collected by Eratosthenes of Alexandria; and, though but small portions of his works have descended to us, the state in which he left the science is that in which we should wish to revive it. The Ægypt of the Greeks,—the Asia of the Greeks, as partitioned among the Generals of Alexander, — and the Sicily of the Greeks, — require a separate delineation for the use of the historical student.

A third set of maps and dissertations should describe the Roman world, — the world of Strabo, or of Ptolemy; and this perhaps is the department which Dr. Butler is best qualified to investigate. Being peculiarly familiar with the Latin classics, and having a great fund of citation to display from Virgil and Horace respecting the towns and villages of Italy, he was desirous of beginning at once where he was most at home; and accordingly he devotes his second chapter to the Italy of the Romans.

Romans. We quote the part which relates to Latium, its rivers, and cities:

‘Below the Tiber was Latium, in which is Ostia, so called from its being the port at the mouth of the Tiber, about 20 miles from Rome. Below it is Antium[*], now *Anzio*, and below it Circeii, celebrated in the time of Horace and Juvenal for its oysters[†], and fabled as the residence of the enchantress Circe, now called *Monte Circello*. Below this is Gaieta, now *Gaeta*, celebrated by Virgil as the burial-place of the nurse of Æneas[‡]. Opposite these is the small island of Pontia, now *Ponza*. Between Circæa and Caieta, on an eminence, is Anxur[§], or *Terracina*, which latter name it still retains. Here the celebrated Pontinæ Paludes, or Pontine Marshes, end. In these marshes Marius[‖] hid himself, and was dragged out from them, with a rope round his neck, to the neighbouring prison of Minturnæ. Receding from the sea, we have Tusculum, about eleven miles below Rome, where was Cicero's celebrated villa, the scene of his Tusculan Disputations; it is now called *Frascati*. Præneste[¶], the retreat of Horace, is to the East of this, now called *Palestrina*. Below Præneste is Anagnia, the capital of the ancient Hernici, and South East is Arpinum, or *Arpino*, the birth-place of Marius and Cicero.

‘The principal Rivers of Latium were the Anio, or *Teverone*, which, passing by the delightful town of Tibur[**], antiently bounded it on the North East; and the Liris, which rose near the Lake Fucinus[††], not far from the Anio, and, flowing in an opposite direction, falls into the sea near Minturnæ. The Liris is now called the *Garigliano*. The small river Fibrenus, which ran by Cicero's paternal villa, falls into it not far from Arpinum.

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[*] ‘Here was the famous Temple of Fortune, the subject of the Ode of Horace:
‘*O Diva gratum quæ regis Antium.* Od. i. 35.’

[†] ‘*Ostrea Circæis, Miseno oriuntur echini.* Hor. Sat. ii. 4.’
‘—— *Circæis nata forent, an*
Lucrinum ad saxum, Rutupinove edita fundo
Ostrea callebat primo dignoscere morsu. Juvenal, Sat. iv. 140.’

[‡] ‘*Tu quoque littoribus nostris, Æneia nutrix,*
Æternam moriens famam, Caieta, dedisti. Virg. Æn. vii. 1.’

[§] ‘*Impositum saxis late candentibus Anxur.* Hor. Sat. i. 5.’

[‖] ‘Hence Juvenal, speaking of Marius:
Exilium et carcer, Minturnarumque paludes
Et mendicatus victa Carthagine panis. Sat. x. 276.’

[¶] ‘*Trojani belli scriptorem, maxime Lolli,*
Dum tu declamas Romæ Præneste relegi. Hor. Epist. ii. 2.’

[**] ‘*Tibur Argæo positum colono*
Sit meæ sedes utinam senectæ. Hor. Od. ii. 6.’
‘—— *Domus Albuneæ resonantis,*
Et præceps Anio, et Tiburni lucus, et uda
Mobilibus pomaria rivis. Hor. Od. i. 7.’

[††] ‘*Te nemus Anguitiæ, vitrea et Fucinus unda,*
Te liquidi flevere lacus. Virg. Æn. vii. 759.’

'The city of Rome itself was built on seven hills[*]: Mons Palatinus, in the center, then Capitolinus, Quirinalis, Viminalis, Esquilinus, Cœlius, Aventinus; the most extreme[†], North and South, were Quirinalis and Aventinus. On the Esquiliæ[‡] were the splendid palace and gardens of Mæcenas. On the Palatine Hill was the celebrated Palatine library[§] of Augustus. This was the first inhabited part of Rome, and is sometimes put, by way of eminence, for the whole[||]. Indeed, here was the residence of Romulus and the Roman Kings, of Augustus and the Roman Emperors; whence Palatium has ever since been applied to the residence of a monarch. On Mons Capitolinus was the Capitol, and Tarpeian Rock. Mons Aventinus was the burying-place of Remus; hence it was looked upon as a place of ill omen[¶]. Between the Collis Capitolinus, Quirinalis, and the Tiber, was the Campus Martius, the principal situation of modern Rome; and opposite Mons Palatinus, across the Tiber, on the Tuscan side, was the Janiculum. At the foot of the Capitol was the Forum Romanum, and on one side of it the famous Milliarium Aureum, or Golden Milestone, from which all the Roman Roads were measured. The nations in the immediate vicinity of Rome, during the earlier periods of the Roman history, were the Latini below Rome; the Æqui and Hernici East of Rome; the Aurunci below them, on the coast of Latium, towards Campania; the Marsi East of the Æqui; the Sabini North of Rome; and to the North West of it, the Veientes.'

From this transcript, our readers may form a judgment of the method which has been adopted by Dr. Butler: in which, we think, we can discover a certain confusion of poetic tradition with historical event; as if "a local habitation and a name" might as confidently be assigned to "airy nothings" as to the phænomena of nature. For instance, at p. 85. we are told that 'Neapolis was previously called Parthenope, from the name of

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'[*] Hence Horace:—
Diis quibus septem placuere colles. Carm. Sæc. 7.'

'[†] Hence Horace:—
'—— *Cubat hic in colle Quirini,*
Hic extremo in Aventino: visendus uterque:
Intervalla vides humane commoda. Epist. ii. 2.'

'[‡] *Nunc licet Esquiliis habitare salubribus, atque*
Aggere in aprico spatiari, qua modo tristes
Albis informem spectabant ossibus agrum. Hor. Sat. i. 8.'

'[§] *Scripta Palatinus quæcunque recepit Apollo.* Hor. Epist. i. 3.'

'[||] Hence Hor.
'*Si Palatinas videt æquus arces*
Remque Romanam Latiumque felix. Carm. Sæc. 65.'

'[¶] *Ut immerentis fluxit in terram Remi*
Sacer nepotibus cruor. Hor. Epod. vii. 18.'

one of the Sirens who was said to have lived there;' and that 'it was the favourite residence of Virgil, who is said to be buried near the promontory of Misenum.' Here the tradition concerning a Siren is told in the very same phraseology which relates the historic fact that Virgil's humble tomb still remains on one of the horns of the crescent of the bay of Naples.

The third chapter treats of the Italian islands, or, as Mr. Pinkerton writes the word, ilands; and in fact it is derived from *ei*, water, and *land*, land; so that the *s* was introduced by mistaken etymologists, who traced the word erroneously to the French *isle.*

Chapter iv. is allotted to *Britannia antiqua.* Its divisions are carefully enumerated after Ptolemy: but nothing is said concerning the classification of the natives by their languages. Pinkerton seems first to have ascertained that the Caledonians of the north, and all the inhabitants of the eastern shore of Britain, were originally Piks, or pirates, of a Gothic stem. From the promontory Orcas to the isle Vectis, the whole coast was settled by Goths. The Belgæ, a Cimbric tribe, crossed from Gaul into Devonshire and Cornwall, peopled Wales, and overspred Cumberland: but these colonists of the western coast, though more civilized than the Goths of the eastern, must be of later introduction; because they have multiplied so much less, and have bequeathed their dialect to so small a portion of the interior. The Gauls, or Gaelic tribes, migrated from the west of France into Ireland, and thence expanded into the Scotish highlands, but do not appear to have ever settled any where in England. The Roman divisions of Britain are given with accuracy and attention by Dr. Butler; yet some notice was due to the fact of their appointing a Count of the Saxon shore, *Comes littoris Saxonici,* to govern the eastern counties; because this proves the eastern population to have been Gothic, and to have been in the habit of using a Saxon dialect, long before the arrival of Hengist and Horsa, at which period many of our historians wrongly date the first coming of the Saxons. The English language was already that of London in the time of Julius Cæsar.

In the fifth chapter, Dr. B. treats of Spain; in the sixth, of Gaul; and in the seventh, of Germany. At p. 124., among the tribes between the Elbe and the Weser, are mentioned the Angrivarii. It is very common for savages to confound the sounds of *l* and *r*; the Peruvians call *Rima* the place which the Spaniards call *Lima.* We suspect this consonantal commutation to have occurred in the word before us, and that the Angles lie hidden in the Angrivarii.

Chapter viii. treats of the countries north of the Danube; and the ninth, of *Græcia antiqua.* This is a well composed and an interesting chapter. The tenth relates to the Græcian isles of the Archipelago; and the eleventh, to Asia Minor, (a denomination neither classical nor rational,) or rather to Anatolia: — this, again, is a meritorious chapter. The twelfth describes the East. Of this chapter, Palestine occupies but too slight and short a subdivision. It appears to us probable that, in the time of Solomon, the river Jordan, which now evaporates in a lake, was navigable into the Red Sea; and that the Tarshish of Cilicia, where St. Paul was born, was at the same period a sea-port. Huet of Avranches has been the founder of gross errors in sacred geography, by his unsound dissertations on that topic: it was he who dreamed that he had found in Spain the Tarshish of the antient Jews. Instead of tracing the progressive geography of Palestine according to the order of time, Dr. Butler begins with its condition under the Roman dominion, and concludes with its subdivision by Joshua.

The thirteenth chapter sketches the unknown Asia, or most eastern world; and the fourteenth describes Africa, and terminates the volume.

In conclusion, we must observe that this work has the merit of filling an inconvenient chink or chasm of English literature, and is the best short vernacular volume on the subject; yet we think that it might be revised, interpolated, corrected, and arranged, and gain by many changes. The first thing, however, is to make a book, and the second is to render it complete. When the learned author has used in his school this introduction to antient geography, for a certain length of time, he will himself become aware of several of its imperfections, and will be anxious to remedy them. We doubt not that he will be found to have merited the gratitude of the instructors of youth, as well as of the pupils themselves; and to have swept from the floor of the antient world much dirt and rubbish, which concealed the nomenclature of its compartments, and the splendor of its pristine mosaic pavement. The lessons of human experience form the most important study of man; if chronology teaches the *pace*, geography teaches the *path* of history.

ART. III. *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. XI.*

[*Article concluded from our last No. p.* 418.]

WE resume the class of *Science* in this Volume, for the purpose of reporting the contents of those papers which relate to

MATHEMATICS AND ASTROMOMY.

An Essay on the present State of Astronomical Certainty, with regard to the Quantity of the Earth's Magnitude, the Distance of *that Planet from the Sun, and the absolute Limit of the smallest possible Interval from the Sun to any of the fixed Stars.* By the Rev. J. A. Hamilton, D.D., Dean of Cloyne.—The object of the author, in this memoir, is to present a correct statement of the several results deduced from the observations and calculations of the most eminent astronomers and philosophers, relative to the solar parallax, the distance of the earth from the sun, the magnitude and ellipticity of the former, and the nearest possible limits of the fixed stars from the centre of our system. This is done with the view of enabling persons, who are not in the habit of making astronomical calculations, to form correct ideas relative to these interesting particulars; and at the same time to induce those who may be qualified for such undertakings, to endeavour to correct the errors and imperfections which still attend these important elements of astronomical science.

With regard to the parallactic angle, Dr. Hamilton observes that it may, with almost actual certainty, be stated to lie within the limits 8″.65, and 8″.75: but, in order to avoid too contracted a scale, he assumes 8″. 6., 8″. 7., and 8″. 8., and supposes the semi-diameter of the earth to be between 3945 and 3965 English miles: he then computes the absolute distance of the earth from the sun in English miles, corresponding with these several limits, of which we shall give his extreme results; viz.

Semi-diam. in Eng. m.	Par. ang. 8″.6.	Par. ang. 8″.7.	Par. ang. 8″.8.
3945	94,618,000	93,513,000	92,467,000
3965	95,097,000	94,002,000	92,963,000;

so that the extreme limits, as to the absolute distance, are 95,097,000 and 92,467,000 English miles.

As to the assumed semi-diameters, they are drawn from the results of the several geodetic operations that have been carried on in different countries, which are thus stated:

	British miles.
Maupertuis and Company,	3971.35
Ulloa and Condamine,	3957.7
Cassini and De la Caille,	3957.08
De la Caille and Cassini,	3965.3
De la Caille,	3954.72
Boscovitch,	3954.95
Mason and Dixon,	3951.4
Liesganig,	3958.2
General Roy,	3956.8
Brigade-Major Lambton,	3956.5

all these being 'calculated on the hypothesis that the æquatorial diameter of the earth exceeds the polar by $\frac{1}{300}$ of the whole.' These results furnish the author with the following important conclusion:

> 'From a view of the table of the possible distances of the earth from the sun, it will appear, that with a given parallax, each difference of an English mile in the semi-diameter of the earth will occasion a difference of about 24,000 English miles in the distance; and that, the semi-diameter remaining the same, the difference of one-tenth of a second in the horizontal parallax alters the distance of the earth from the sum above *one million of miles*.'

While such trifling deviations from exact observation make such an enormous difference in the results, it seems truly astonishing that our knowlege on these subjects is brought within such near approximations as we have every reason to assign to it.

The rest of the author's memoir relates to the least possible distance of the fixed stars from the centre of our system: which, he states, cannot be less than 39,191,000 millions of miles; because, with a shorter distance, we should be able to observe their annual parallax.

Farther Considerations on the comparative Observations of the Difference of Right Ascension of the Moon's enlightened Limb, with the Sun's Centre, and with Stars under different Meridians: together with the actual Results of a great Number of such Observations, made in various Years, at the respective Observatories of Greenwich and Armagh. By the Same. —This memoir relates to a method of determining the difference of longitude of two places, by means of a comparison of the true differences of the difference of right ascension of the moon's enlightened limb on the meridian from one or more stars, with which it has been also compared on the same day, under the different meridians, whose longitudinal distances from each other it is required to determine. This method was published by the author in a preceding volume of the Irish Transactions. At that time, it was supposed to be applicable only to fixed observatories: but, from a number of careful and repeated trials and investigations, Dr. H. is now enabled to decide that it is not merely capable of the highest degree of accuracy, but that it is easily put in practice by persons who are furnished only with a good timekeeper and a portable transit instrument of no very high power or great size; and which, with a simple apparatus, may be set up in a few hours, under even a bell-tent, or other slight observatory. It is therefore peculiarly adapted to the use of scientific persons, who may chance to be employed on voyages either of commerce or discovery. As, however, the paper contains merely an application of the author's original method to a variety of examples, it seems unnecessary for us to enter into any detail of its principles in this place.

On Sir Isaac Newton's first Solution of the Problem for finding the Relation between Resistance and Gravity, that a Body may be made to describe a given Curve; and the Source of Error in that Solution pointed out. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, D.D., F.R.S., and M.R.I.A., Andrew's Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin. — Such is the importance which attaches to every investigation of the illustrious Newton, that even his errors become highly interesting; and they have accordingly attracted the attention of many eminent philosophers and mathematicians, since his time. The particular problem, which forms the subject of the present memoir, is the 3d prob. of the 2d book in the first edition of the *Principia*; the erroneous conclusion of which was first pointed out by John Bernouilli. Newton himself, in the second and subsequent editions of the *Principia*, gave an accurate solution of the problem, by a method entirely different from the former, but without any notice of the source of error in his first solution.

Nich. Bernouilli imagined that he had discovered this source; and his opinion was generally admitted, till La Grange published his "*Théorie des Fonctions Analytiques*," in which he shewed that the solution was accurate in the part in which Bernouilli had deemed it erroneous. La Grange then gave two solutions of his own, one of which produced the correct result, and the other afforded the erroneous result of Newton's first solution; whence he inferred that the error in Newton's and in his own solution were the same. On this head, however, Dr. Brinkley very properly remarks that the process of Newton is entirely different in all its steps from that of La Grange, and consequently that they have no common error: but, as they give the same result, it is highly probable that they may be traced to one and the same source.

Dr. B. then proceeds to the examination of the Newtonian solution, as well as those of La Grange; and he shews that the error in the former arises out of a wrong application of the doctrine of prime and ultimate ratios. In La Grange's solution, the increments of the ordinate and abscissa are computed by supposing the resistance to act during the time θ, in the direction of the tangent; and thus the deviation from the tangent, in that time, is denoted by $\frac{g\theta^2}{2}$, depending only on the time and force of gravity. In the Newtonian solution, the deviations from the tangent in equal times are taken accurately equal, and are therefore made to depend on the force of gravity only. Hence the common source of error, which Dr. Brinkley suspected, is satisfactorily confirmed; and the true and legitimate cause of inaccuracy in Newton's first solution is placed in such a perspicuous light, as to render any farther discussions of this subject wholly unnecessary.

Investigations relative to the Problem for clearing the apparent Distance of the Moon from the Sun or a Star, from the Effects of Parallax and Refraction, and an easy and concise Method pointed out. By the Same. — The method of finding the longitude at sea was first proposed by Werner of Nuremberg, as early as the year 1514: but, at that time, it was little more than a theoretical principle, which, in the then existing state of astronomy, it was impossible to put in practice. In fact, the first great advance towards the perfection of this method may be dated from the year 1755, when Mayer sent a copy of his lunar tables to the British Admiralty; which, however, were not published till 1770. Since that period, no other method has been devised for the determination of the longitude at sea: but all possible means have been attempted for bringing the lunar method to perfection, and for accommodating the necessary computations to the abilities and habits of seamen in general; who are well known to be much averse to laborious calculations, such as naturally attend the problem of clearing the lunar distance from the effects of parallax and refraction.

With this view, a variety of solutions has been proposed. They may, however, be divided into two principal classes; viz. that in which the correction of the observed distance is given, and not the corrected distance itself, and which therefore necessarily involves a distinction of cases; while the other, giving the corrected distance, is free from this source of embarrassment, but requires a longer and more tedious calculation. The object of Dr. Brinkley, in this memoir, is to simplify the solution in the latter case; and we have no doubt that, if his method were generally known, it would be practised in preference to most others of the same kind: — by many in preference to those of the first class, even when the purchase and incumbrance of the necessary tables are considered as no material objections.

Of the methods depending on the use of extensive tables, those which are proposed by Mr. Mendoza Rios are the most complete. This author, to whose exertion nautical astronomy is much indebted, has given, in a valuable paper in the Philosophical Transactions for 1797, forty different formulæ for computing directly the true distance. Of these, that which he selected as best adapted to practice affords a very concise and plain method of computation, requiring only the addition of five versed sines: but even here, says Dr. Brinkley,

'It may be doubted whether it is preferable to Mr. Dunthorne's first method, improved by the substitution of versed sines for cosines, as was done by Dr. Mackay in his *Treatise on the Longitude*. Mr. Mendoza's method requires an extensive table for an auxiliary angle, (equivalent to the auxiliary table in Mr. Dunthorne's method, and in those derived from it,) and the formation of five different arguments; and also, to practise it with convenience, a complete table of versed sines, for at least the semi-circle. Mr. Mendoza, anxious to improve still farther the solution of the problem, published his very extensive tables, by which he reduced the method to be equivalent to taking out, and adding together, three numbers, and not requiring the formation of arguments. His ingenuity and perseverance in forming, computing, and publishing his tables, are deserving of the greatest praise. But on several accounts those tables will not supersede the use of methods in which shorter tables are employed, although these methods should be somewhat longer in practice, provided they be equally plain. To many persons the necessary expence of the volume will be an objection, many will consider its bulk inconvenient, and many, disliking such extensive tables with double arguments, will even prefer the former method, which those tables were intended to facilitate.'

Having paid this tribute to the ingenuity and perseverance of Mr. Mendoza, and at the same time having fairly and correctly stated the inconveniences still attending his method, Dr. B. gives the investigation of his own solution; which he candidly acknowleges is nearly allied to Mr. Dunthorne's method, and still nearer to that of Dr. Mackay. In point of practical application, however, it far exceeds either; and we question whether the solution by Mr. Mendoza's tables can be obtained much more readily than by Dr. Brinkley's method, although the calculation in the latter case will be somewhat longer. It involves no distinction of cases, requires only short tables with single arguments, and no proportional parts are necessary, except what may be taken out by inspection, and these for only one quantity besides the conclusion. We should be glad to see this rule introduced into some practical and popular work, in order to its being more generally known than it can be while it is confined to the Irish Transactions. Would it not be an improvement in the Nautical Almanac, to make a practice of devoting a few additional pages to the insertion of useful nautical problems and their investigations, after the manner of the *Connoissance des Temps?* We should have been happy to have given the rule a place in our Review, had not the few tables of arguments, and the illustration of its principles, been inconsistent with the nature of such a publication.

Essays on Powers and their Differences. By Francis Burke, Esq. of Ower, in the County of Galway, Barrister at Law, and A.B. of Trinity College, Dublin.—After the numerous attempts that we have seen, for the demonstration of this celebrated theorem, and the various objections that have been urged against some of the principles on which they have been made to depend, it seemed almost hopeless to expect to meet with one which should entirely avoid these or other difficulties. We confess that under a feeling of this kind we began the perusal of the present essay; and certainly the preliminary part of it by no means impressed us with a more favourable idea: yet, on farther examination, we have no hesitation in stating it as our opinion that it depends on principles wholly unobjectionable, and that we can see no reason for desiring any thing more satisfactory. This remark, however, must be understood as applying to that part only in which the law of the co-efficients is derived; for we do not admit the legality of the preceding part, in which the author proves the law of the indices, viz. that the expansion of $(1+x)^{\frac{m}{r}}$ is of the form $1+\frac{m}{r}x\,Cx^2+Dx^3+$, &c. Yet, as this part has been demonstrated on undeniable principles, we do not consider a deficiency here as materially affecting the general conclusion. From this point, at which the defect of most demonstrations begins, we may follow the author with great pleasure and satisfaction; and, though we cannot give the demonstration at full length, we will endeavour to present such an abstract of it as will enable the reader to comprehend the principles on which it is made to depend.

Admitting the form above stated, viz. that, $(1+x)^{\frac{m}{r}}=1+\frac{m}{r}x+Cx^2+Dx^3+$, &c., it follows, by means of the usual transformation, that $(p+x)^{\frac{m}{r}}=p^{\frac{m}{r}}+\frac{m}{r}xp^{\frac{m}{r}-1}+Cx^2p^{\frac{m}{r}-2}+$, &c. and the object of the author is to determine the law of the several co-efficients C, D, &c. which he does by means of the following proposition and its corollaries.

Prop. If o, p, q, r, s, &c. are the terms of an arithmetical series, whose common difference is d, then will $p+d, q+d, r+d, s+d$, &c. be respectively equal to the corresponding terms of the series, o, p, q, r, s, &c. If we take the successive differences of the $\frac{m}{r}$th powers of those terms, we shall have for the first term of the *n*th order of differences, the series $\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-3\right) d$, &c. $\left(\frac{m}{r}-\overline{n-1}\right) d \times w^{\frac{m}{r}-n}$.

This is demonstrated as follows:

Powers.

$$o^{\frac{m}{r}} = (p+d)^{\frac{m}{r}} = p^{\frac{m}{r}} + \frac{m}{r} d p^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 p^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$$p^{\frac{m}{r}} = (q+d)^{\frac{m}{r}} = q^{\frac{m}{r}} + \frac{m}{r} d q^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 q^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$$q^{\frac{m}{r}} = (r+d)^{\frac{m}{r}} = r^{\frac{m}{r}} + \frac{m}{r} d r^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 r^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$$r^{\frac{m}{r}} = (s+d)^{\frac{m}{r}} = s^{\frac{m}{r}} + \frac{m}{r} d s^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 s^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$$s^{\frac{m}{r}} = (t+d)^{\frac{m}{r}} = t^{\frac{m}{r}} + \frac{m}{r} d t^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 t^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$$t^{\frac{m}{r}} =, \&c.$$

Whence taking the first, second, &c. differences, and observing that, $o = p + d$, $p = q+d$, $q = r+d$, &c. we have (retaining only the first term of each) the following results:

First Differences.	*Second Differences.*
$\frac{m}{r} d p^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 p^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$+,&c.	$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d q^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$ +, &c.
$\frac{m}{r} d q^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 q^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$+,&c.	$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d r^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$ +,&c.
$\frac{m}{r} d r^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 r^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$+,&c.	$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d s^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$ +,&c.
$\frac{m}{r} d s^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + C d^2 s^{\frac{m}{r}-2}$+,&c.	

In the same way, taking the differences of the second differences, we have,

Third Differences.

$$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d r^{\frac{m}{r}-3} +, \&c.$$

$\frac{m}{r} d$

$$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d s^{\frac{m}{r}-3} +, \&c.$$

Fourth Differences.

$$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-3\right) d s^{\frac{m}{r}-4} +, \&c.$$

&c. &c.

Hence, by an obvious and infallible deduction, the first term of the nth differences will be

$$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d, \&c. \left(\frac{m}{r}-\overline{n-1}\right) d w^{\frac{m}{r}-n}$$

Q. E. D.

from which proposition, the author deduces the following corollaries, viz.

1. If, instead of the preceding series, we take the series $x+a$, $x+p$, $x+q$, &c., and arrange the several differences according to the several powers of x, the first term of the nth differences will then become

$$\frac{m}{r} d \left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) d \left(\frac{m}{r}-3\right) d, \&c. \left(\frac{m}{r}\overline{n-1}\right) d x^{\frac{m}{r}-n};$$

and which will be the constant first term of the several nth differences.

2. If $\frac{m}{r} = n$, an integer, then the above becomes $n(n-1)(n-2)$, &c. $3.\,2.\,1.\,d^n$, or $= 1, 2, 3$, &c. $n.d^n$; which latter expression not only represents the first term of the nth differences of nth powers, but exhibits the entire differences, which are therefore constant, and consequently the $(n+1)$th differences are all equal to Zero.—We do not attempt to give here the demonstration, or rather the explanation, of these deductions; because it would occupy too much room, and because we conceive that it is sufficiently obvious. Perhaps the author himself has been too prolix in this respect.

The demonstration of the binomial theorem is drawn immediately from the two preceding corollaries, by substituting the series of natural numbers 1, 2, 3, &c. instead of q, in the general expansion,

$$(x+q)^{\frac{m}{r}} = x^{\frac{m}{r}} + b q x^{\frac{m}{r}-1} + c q^2 x^{\frac{m}{r}-2} +, \&c.$$

$t q\, x^{\frac{m}{r}-n}$ +, &c. viz. proceeding in an inverted order, towards the least.

(x+4)

$$(x+4)^{\frac{m}{r}} = x^{\frac{m}{r}} + b.4.x^{\frac{m}{r}-1} +, \&c. \quad + t\,4^{n}\,x^{\frac{m}{r}-n} +, \&c.$$

$$(x+3)^{\frac{m}{r}} = x^{\frac{m}{r}} + b.3.x^{\frac{m}{r}-1} +, \&c. \quad + t\,3^{n}\,x^{\frac{m}{r}-n} +, \&c.$$

$$(x+2)^{\frac{m}{r}} = x^{\frac{m}{r}} + b.2.x^{\frac{m}{r}-1} +, \&c. \quad + t\,2^{n}\,x^{\frac{m}{r}-n} +, \&c.$$

$$(x+1)^{\frac{m}{r}} = x^{\frac{m}{r}} + b.1.x^{\frac{m}{r}-1} +, \&c. \quad + t\,1^{n}\,x^{\frac{m}{r}-n} +, \&c.$$

t being taken to represent the co-efficient of the $\overline{n+1}$th term in the expansion of $(x+q)^{\frac{m}{r}}$, and the form of which is required.

Now, in the above series of arithmeticals, the common difference $d=1$; therefore, the first term of the nth differences is equal to

$$\frac{m}{r}\left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) \cdot\cdot \left(\frac{m}{r}-\overline{n-1}\right) x^{\frac{m}{r}-n},$$

which is obviously the same as the nth differences of the latter terms, or of the $n+1$th terms of the expansion, and which from cor. 2 is equal to $1.\,2.\,3.\,4. \ldots n.\,t\,x^{\frac{m}{r}-n}$; whence, equating these two, we have for the value and form of t (that is, of the co-efficient of the $\overline{n+1}$th term of the expansion,) $t =$

$$\frac{\frac{m}{r}\left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) \cdot\cdot \left(\frac{m}{r}\overline{n-1}\right)}{1.\quad 2.\quad 3.\qquad n},$$ the form required.

We are aware that this demonstration may be too much contracted to appear quite perspicuous to some of our readers: but it must be remembered that we profess only to explain the principles of it; and not to give the demonstration itself, which appears to us to be perfectly satisfactory.

The author concludes this essay by a demonstration of the Multinomial Theorem of De Moivre: but we cannot enter on any explanation of it in this place.

Essay II. *On finding per Saltum the several Orders of Differences.*

The formulæ for finding *per saltum* the several orders of differences in series, the author observes, have been usually deduced from a repeated arithmetical subduction. Thus, if the successive quantities are a, b, c, d, &c. then

1st diffs. $a-b$, $b-c$, $c-d$, &c.
2d diffs. $a-2b+c$, $b-2c+d$, &c.
3d diffs. $a-3b+3c-d$, &c.

and universally, the nth differences, having their several co-efficients the same as those of a binomial raised to the nth power, powers, will be represented by the formula $a - nb + \frac{n(n-1)}{1.\ 2.}c - \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1.\ 2.\ 3.}d +$, &c.

The object of the present essay is to generalize these formulæ; and, as Mr. Burke states, to enlarge the analogy which has been observed in some cases to prevail between differences and fluxions. We cannot attempt to enter into the particular process of the author: but, as some of his propositions contain *new* properties, and others considerably extend *old* properties, it may not be amiss to point them out to the reader's notice; though for their demonstrations we must refer to the Essay itself.

1. The *n*th differences of the *n*th powers of quantities in arithmetical progression are constant, and equal to $1.\ 2.\ 3.\ 4.\ \ldots\ n.\ d^n$, d being the common difference. This important property, we have seen, the author deduces as a corollary in the preceding essay, and it is only repeated here to preserve an uniformity in the present chapter. The invention of this formula is due to Briggs, he having been led to it in the construction of his logarithms: but its demonstration has been generally made to depend on the fluxional or differential calculus; whereas Mr. Burke, by making its demonstration rest on first principles, inverts the order of proceeding, and therefore renders the latter dependent on the former.

'2. If there are *n* number of arithmetical series, whose common differences are respectively a, b, c, d, &c.; let all the different corresponding terms of the several series be multiplied together, the *n*th differences of the products will be constant, and equal to $1.\ 2.\ 3.\ \ldots\ n \times a\,b\,c\,d$ &c.'—

'3. The series $1, \frac{n+1}{1}, \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{1.\ 2.}, \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)}{1.\ 2.\ 3.}$, &c. will have the *n*th differences of its terms common, and equal to unit, which is the definition of triangular (figurate) numbers of the *n*th order.'—

'4. If the *q*th powers of the natural numbers, and the *r*th powers of the corresponding triangular numbers, which admit two orders of differences; and the corresponding *s*th powers of the triangular numbers having three orders, &c. be all multiplied as follows:

$$1^q \times 1^r \times 1^s \times, \text{ \&c.}$$

$$2^q \times 3^r \times 4^s \times, \text{ \&c.}$$

&c. &c. &c.

these products will have as many orders of differences as there are units in $q + 2r + 3s +$, &c. and the last of these will be constant, and

$$= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3, \&c. \ldots (q + 2r + 3s +, \&c.)}{1^{q} \times \overline{1.2}^{\,r} \times \overline{1.2.3}^{\,s} \times, \&c.}$$

'*Lemma.* The quantities in any series can be expressed in a multinomial form, in terms of triangular numbers, and of the first of the several orders of differences of the quantities: viz. let P be the first quantity taken in a series, and Q, R, S, &c. be the first of the several differences, whose orders are one, two, three, &c. the following general formula will express the preceding and subsequent quantities, in the series; viz.

$$P + n\,Q + \frac{n\,(n+1)}{1.\ 2.}\,R + \frac{n\,(n+1)\,(n+2)}{1.\ 2.\ 3.}\,S, \ \&c. = n\text{th}$$ preceding quantity, and

$$P - n\,Q + \frac{n\,(n-1)}{1.\ 2.}\,R - \frac{n\,(n-1)\,(n-2)}{1.\ 2.\ 3.}\,S = n\text{th}$$ succeeding quantity.'

From this lemma, and the preceding propositions, Mr. B. draws his 5th and principal proposition; viz.

'5. If P is one of the quantities in a series admitting several orders of differences, the first of the differences in the first, second, third, &c. orders of differences of those quantities being Q, R, S, &c. putting $(p-d) + (d-e) +$, &c. $= p$: and $(p-d) + 2\,(d-e) + 3\,(e-f) +$, &c. or $p + d + e + f$, &c. $= n$. In all the nth differences of the $\frac{m}{r}$th powers of those quantities in the *lemma*, the co-efficient of $P^{\frac{m}{r}-p} \times Q^{p-d}\,R \times^{d-e} \times S^{e-f} +$, &c. will be constant, or the same in all the differences of that order, and will be $= \dfrac{1.\,2.\,3.\ldots n}{\overline{1}^{\,p-d} \times \overline{1.\,2}^{\,d-e} \times, \&c.} \times \dfrac{\frac{m}{r}\left(\frac{m}{r}-1\right)\left(\frac{m}{r}-2\right) \ldots \left(\frac{m}{r}-p-1\right)}{1.\,2.\,3\ldots\overline{p-d} \times 1.\,2.\,3\ldots\overline{d-e} \times 1.\,2.\,3\ldots\overline{e-f} \times, \&c.}$'

The above propositions, and their demonstrations, constitute the first chapter of the present essay; and the second chapter contains their application to the method of finding *per saltum* all the constant parts of the differences of any order whatever, and the analogy between them and the co-efficients of the several orders of fluxions.

Essay iii. *On finding Divisors of Equations.*—This Essay is wholly occupied in investigating a method of finding the division of any proposed equation, in order to reduce it, if possible, to lower dimensions: but, as we have already extended this article to a greater length than we at first intended, we must avoid entering into any detail on the subject of the two remaining chapters; and this we are the more inclined to do, because they relate to a problem of little practical utility. When an equation presents itself for solution, it is very doubtful whether, if we knew that it could be resolved into factors, it would answer our purpose to go through the whole operation necessary for that resolution: but, when we consider that, in all probability, in nineteen cases out of twenty, no such resolution can be accomplished, it is obvious that little practical advantage can be expected from any rule of this description.

Before we conclude our account of these Essays, we ought to observe that they contain many new and original ideas, and certainly display a considerable share of mathematical genius: but we by no means admire the form and enumeration of several of the propositions; and the same remark applies to several of the demonstrations, these being in many cases too prolix, and in others rather unintelligible: yet, on the whole, it cannot be denied that they are highly creditable to the talents of their ingenious author.

ART. IV. *Mr.* Eustace's *Classical Tour through Italy.*

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for March, p.* 236.]

ON passing the river Po, its banks, on which the poplar is yet predominant, recall to mind the fable of Phaeton, so prettily told by Ovid. The approach of Pavia, which is situated on the Tesino, to which Claudian attached the epithet of *beautiful*, fills the mind of Mr. Eustace, as usual, with sweet and with bitter recollections. The antient name of this city was Tisinum, from the river Tisinus which bathes its walls: but, between the sixth and the eighth century, the antient name disappeared, and, under the appellation of Papia, softened by Italian euphony into Pavia, the town became a considerable city, and may perhaps be regarded as the first *mother* university. As the Tisinus was originally ennobled by the first battle between Hannibal and Scipio, so has Pavia witnessed the battle between the Emperor Charles the Fifth and his rival Francis, and the yet more bloody entrance of Bonaparte; who, enraged at the resistance made by its citizens, ordered all its magistrates to be shot. The university had been long on the decline, owing to the number of similar institutions in northern countries; and, before the recent events, which will restore life and health to all Italy, the city was on the eve of becoming desolate.

Milan, Milano, or Mediolanum, is a great and splendid city, containing about 150,000 inhabitants. As the cathedral is in dimensions, proportions, materials, and workmanship, confessedly the finest of Gothic structures, it naturally leads the author into a discussion on the comparative merits of the Grecian and Gothic styles, as they are exemplified in the two most famous structures of Rome and Milan. Among the statues crowded in and around this edifice, that of St. Bartholomew is the most esteemed. It represents the Saint holding his own skin, which had been drawn off like drapery from his shoulders: but the irritated play of the muscles is shewn with an accuracy that rather disgusts and terrifies than pleases the spectator. Here, as in every other country in which the French have domineered, appearances of irreligion begin to strike the eye,—neglected churches and plundered hospitals,

> " *Ædesque labentes Deorum, et*
> *Fœda nigro simulacra fumo;*"

to which may be added the suppression of antient establishments, and the early depravation of youth thence resulting. Even the Ambrosian library has not been exempted from the ruin of the schools, churches, and hospitals: the works of Leonardo da Vinci have been tost into the common mass of French plunder; and the celebrated *Last Supper* of that consummate painter was used as a target by French soldiers. 'The heads,' says the author, 'were their favourite marks, and that of our Saviour in preference to others.' Ramparts, convents, and houses were involved in one common ruin, to make way for *a projected forum* of Bonaparte, intended doubtless to eclipse that of Trajan itself:—but, worse than every other ravage, the simple and manly manners of the Milanese,

> ——— " *fœcunda virorum*
> *Ingenia, antiqui mores,*"

were in danger of being lost in one undistinguished mass of violence and fraud.

These injuries are the more to be deplored in Italian cities, because no people are so sensibly alive to their antient glory. Pliny was the benefactor of *Comum.* Could he return to the earth, with what complacency would he look on the honors paid to him in his beloved *Como!* " *Tuæ meæque deliciæ,*" says he to his friend, speaking of this their common town and country; and, indeed, if in his time it was adorned with temples, statues, porticos, pillared gates, and splendid villas, Mr. Eustace is persuaded that, in these respects, the modern does not yield to the antient city. Its lake retains its antient dimensions; it is vast and deep; and the mountains, which border it, enrich with their fertility the scene which they ennoble with their stateliness. The schools, however, the literary establishments, and the religious houses, which diffused civilization and religion over these grand and mountainous tracts, had begun to share in the general ruin of all things that were subject to the continental despot.

At Lugano, the inhabitants were in open but ineffectual rebellion against French oppression. The author found the French engaged in making a road over Mount Sempione, in order to open a communication with Milan, and thus secure the dependance of the Italian republic. Here the face of nature resigns the warm features of Italy. Not far beyond the village of Gondo, the language also alters; and German, 'more conformable to the ruggedness of the situation, assumes the place of Italian.' On returning for the purpose of visiting Turin, Mr. Eustace institutes a comparison between the Italian and the British lakes; which is the more unreasonable because, by his confession, those of Britain 'almost sink into insignificance when compared to similar objects in Alpine regions,' and 'to a traveller lately returned from Italy, Windermere appears a long pool, and Skiddaw shrinks into a hillock;' and 'the heavy lumpish form of Benlomond, its heathy sides and naked brow, with the lifeless masses around it, are very indifferent substitutes for the noble Alpine ridge that borders the Benacus, and presents every mountain-form, from the curve to the pinnacle, from the deep tints of the forest to the dazzling brightness of snow.'

'When to these conspicuous advantages we add the life and interest which such scenes derive from churches, villas, hamlets, and towns, placed as if by the hand of a painter in the most striking situations, so as to contrast with and relieve the horror of the surrounding picture, we describe the peculiar and characteristic features which distinguish the lakes of Italy, and give them an undisputed superiority.

'" *Adde lacus tantos te Lari maxime, teque*
Fluctibus et fremitu assurgens Benace *marino.*" VIRGIL.'

The greatest of the Italian lakes are in *Gallia Cisalpina*; which, as it had not become, in the time of the most distinguished poets, the seat of the Muses or of glorious atchievements, was the country of scenery inanimate and mute.

The Roman name of Turin was *Augusta Taurinorum*. Its glories have been long secured to it by a succession of good sovereigns; and its vicinity to France has been its only misfortune. Its court was equally remarkable for politeness and regularity; and its academy enjoyed a long and merited reputation, since it answered the two great purposes of educating and introducing young men into elegant society. Here the author endeavours to correct an error which is common to his countrymen, who are too much addicted to admire the Helvetian and to vilify the Italian character. A certain broad-faced exterior of simplicity has at all times introduced the Swiss into the menial employments of mercenary and porter to the great houses of France and Italy. They were formerly good private soldiers, and possibly, in spite of a certain self-interested leaven, not bad servants; whose good offices were secured by every high and transferred to every higher bidder. *Point d'argent, point de Suisse.* In later days, they have patiently done the dirty work of France; have been very Arguses in the French police; and have, in this country, yet maintained their character of a simple people. The Italian is fitted to act in a higher sphere; has usually a character more confirmed; is superior in capacity; and, with a countenance that says more, and a mind better stored, has a heart more simple than his ultramontane neighbour. The present author's opinion of the comparative merits of the two universities of Geneva and Turin may be worthy of reflection:

'A year passed in the latter, with the least application, enabled its members to prosecute their travels with advantage, not only by supplying them with the information necessary, but by procuring them such connections with the first families in all the great cities as might preclude the formalities of presentation, and admit them at once into the intimacy of Italian society. Without this confidential admission (which few travellers have enjoyed for many years past,) the domestic intercourse of Italians, and consequently the character of the nation, which is never fully and undisguisedly unfolded unless in such intercourse, must continue a mystery. Now, the academy of Turin, where the young students were considered as part of the court, and admitted to all its balls and amusements, placed this advantage completely within their reach, and was in this respect, and indeed in every other, far superior to Geneva, where the British youth of rank were too often sent to learn French and scepticism from the disciples of Rousseau, and familiarity, insolence, and sickly sentimentality, from the vulgar circles of citizens?' *

Turin, lately the capital of a large and populous territory, and long the residence of a race of active and magnanimous princes, — furnished with all the establishments, literary and civil, that usually grace the seat of royalty, — enlivened by a population of one hundred thousand souls, — and frequented by crowds of strangers from most distant countries, — was now degraded into the chief town of a French department, and had become the residence of a petty tyrant called a *Prefect*. Stripped of all its former distinctions, it was reduced to one half of its population, and mourned in vain its slavery and impoverishment.

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* It should be remembered, however, that Geneva was a *Protestant* and Turin a *Catholic* seminary. *Rev.*

From this city, Mr. Eustace pursued his route to Susa and to Novalese; and, on the northern brow of Mount Cennis, he bade an eternal farewell to the boundaries of Italy, and the regions of classic fame and beauty.

In perusing and reflecting on the work of this learned, dispassionate, and energetic writer, we know not whether to bestow the greatest share of commendation on those talents for description which place the reader on the very spot, and surround him by every *admonitus locorum*, or on the many profound remarks and discussions respecting historical, political, literary, and religious subjects, which are scattered in different parts of his volumes. *

If we cannot enter into the author's view of the church of Rome, we must acknowlege that he admits the necessity of a reformation to bring back that church to its primæval majesty and simplicity; and if certain ceremonies revolt us, the explanation which he has given of others undoubtedly presents to us the Papal court and discipline in a light different from that in which it is usually beheld through the medium of prejudice and misrepresentation. The Popes, he observes, were simply the bishops of Rome, subject at first to Pagan and afterward to Christian Emperors. The greater part of their powers, and especially those acts which have been most offensive, he allows to be of human institution. Under the former line of Emperors, the Popes were more popular in Rome than their masters, because they were native Romans, patricians, better informed, and more humane; in a word, because they were Christians. Under the Christian line, they became friends, confidents, and spiritual guides to the Emperors themselves; and they were enriched with grants of land, with plate and jewels, by their sovereigns and by foreign princes. The barbarians themselves appear to have been awed by their sacred character, and left their accumulated riches untouched. This fact we learn from the epistles of Gregory the Great; who employed the vast income, of which he was the administrator, in supporting many illustrious families that had been reduced to misery, and in relieving the distresses of the people who were labouring under the accumulated pressure of war, famine, and pestilence. Meanwhile, the Emperors were usually also barbarians, and absent from the capital; in which they took no interest beyond that of conquest or of plunder. It is not surprizing, therefore, if the people were anxious to withdraw their allegiance from a foreign despot; and to grant it to a pontiff who employed his riches so much to their advantage, who was himself a Roman patrician, who saved them from the intrigues of the imperial court, and from the fury of the Longobardi. Gregory had been early employed in the management of affairs, and had acquired the address of a courtier with the experience of a statesman. In those disastrous times, the Romans were in need of some powerful mind that should draw, as it were, a magic circle around them, to secure them from assault and plunder. Neither bishop nor prince, however, it is asserted, would have been singly able to protect them: but the assumption of a character which combined the temporal and spiritual authorities, to their utmost, was at that fearful period their only bulwark and defence. Gregory was a Roman, and regarded all beyond the Alps as barbaric; and it is considered as probable that the claims to universal supremacy, which he first established, originated rather in the pride of a Roman than in that of a pontiff. From the period of his interference, the Greek Emperors were the nominal, but the Popes became the real and effective sovereigns of Rome. Attached to it generally by birth, and always by residence, duty, and interest, they promoted its welfare with unabating and often with successful efforts; and on the merit of these services, and the voluntary submission of a grateful and admiring flock, rests the original and best claim to temporal sovereignty which the Roman pontiffs possess. This sovereignty was long enjoyed by them before it was allowed on the part of the Emperor; and many ages elapsed before it was established on a solid and unshaken basis. Their conduct is represented as honourable to themselves and their country until the tenth century; from which period, for five succeeding centuries, they seem to have lost all the sacredness of their character in intrigue, and but too often in guilty encroachments on the rights of other princes and other nations. In the meanwhile, new pomps, new ceremonies, new dresses, new relics, and new absurdities of every kind, appear to have been devised for the purposes of abusing the credulous or over-reaching the powerful; until these multiplied practices of deception and intolerance awakened the slumbering indignation of the north.

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* Mr. Eustace apologizes for the table of *Errata*, which certainly is rather large; and, although he is evidently versed in classic lore, by a strange fatality the errors are of a description that should seem to indicate an inattention to prosody: such as *rosca*, corrected to *rosea*, when the metre demanded *roscida*: — *Privatus illis census brevis erat*, for *census erat brevis*: — *magna mater frugum, magna virum*, &c. for *magna parens*; and very many more. These metrical inaccuracies are the more worthy of correction, as the tour is professedly *classical*.

This indignation, by withdrawing from the Popes much of the veneration of men, put them on their guard, and insensibly reduced them again to act more within the sphere of their pastoral duties, and to confine themselves to the reserve and severe magnificence of pontiffs. The income of the Roman court, when in full possession of its territory both in Italy and France, was not calculated at more than 600,000l.; and Mr. Eustace observes, contrary to the received opinion, that this revenue arose principally from internal taxation. The annats and dispensations from France, the richest of Catholic countries, did not amount, according to this statement, to more than 15,000l. per annum. In Spain and Germany, they were, as Mr. E. believes, bought off or suppressed. The pilgrims, who visited Rome in latter days, brought little more in their train than filth and beggary, and were more frequently a weight than a relief to the ecclesiastical establishment.

Some of the Popes, we allow with this author, have been great and good men: but, although the wars of Julius II., and the cruelties and pollutions of Alexander VI., are by no means the scale by which we measure their general character, yet we cannot agree with him that a government whose head is a Pope, and whose senate is a consistory of cardinals, would ever replace with effect the consular and senatorial dignities of antient Rome. If the exercise of any profession would train its members to the arts of legislation and of government, the law should seem to be the more obvious school; — and, if, after experience, the study of the law be found to contract the mind and unfit it for those general views which a politician should embrace, how can we expect that an individual, concentered in a subject the farthest removed from bustle and intrigue, and estranged from danger and alarm, should be fitted to meet new and pressing emergencies, and to make head against the factions and violence of the world?

In viewing the calamities which have visited Europe for a series of twenty-two years, we coincide in general with the opinion of Mr. Eustace. The French first subdued the continent with their language, before they attempted its conquest by their arms; and the Italian, the daughter of the Latin, (which, although not *matre pulchrâ filia pulchrior*, is unquestionably the sweetest and most sonorous of modern tongues,) has been compelled to yield its open and manly articulation to a language in most respects its inferior. Even in this country, whose existence as an independent nation has long been owing to the jealous vigilance of the well informed, aided by the wholesome prejudices of the multitude against French influence, that influence has extended very widely over our schools and societies.. Not to mention the irremediable defects in the French language, — its truncated syllables, the general complication of its grammar, the multiplicity of its rules, and the frequency of exceptions, its vowels and dipthongs of indistinct and its various syllables of nasal utterance,— it is moreover a language which can by no process be said to lend itself to poesy in its more exquisite sense. To the beauties of inversion, which places a principal word precisely in that situation which sets it off to advantage, it is a stranger. The *e* mute is a mean subterfuge in metre; the rhymes masculine and feminine are but fetters, necessary indeed to that one language; and the gallop of its numerous syllables, though choaked with nearly as many consonants as the English, from the opening to the conclusion of a line, appears to say to the metrical writer, "Jest as much as you choose, but write nothing serious or tender." Yet, with all these defects, Racine *has been* tender, but perhaps Racine alone. In the epigram, however, the madrigal, and those happy nothings which depend on ingenuity, the French are not to be rivalled. Neither can we deny to their prose much eloquence and force; and, above all, that logical closeness and clearness which they claim, which to the authors of this country appears never to have been fully known, but which Mr. Eustace seems to consider as within the reach of other languages. Still, whatever may be its merits, we hail the present writer as coinciding with us in a long preconceived opinion, that Italian is its superior in sound and in sense; and that the re-introduction of Latin, or of Italian, into diplomacy, to the exclusion of the French, is almost necessary to the repose of Europe. The Italian language breathes no atheism; its authors are in general pure; in every species of literature, they have advanced far, and in many they have gone beyond their restless neighbours. Dante, Petrarca, Ariosto, Tasso, Boccaccio, Guarini, Alfieri, Metastasio, all *Phæbo digna locuti;* Guicciardini, Davila, Denina, Muratori, in history; the same Muratori, Maffei, Carli, and Paciaudi, in antiquities; and in criticism the mere mention of Tiraboschi, who, in his *Storia della Litteratura Italiana* takes in the whole history of the antient and modern literature of his country, and conducts the reader from the first Punic war over the immense space of twenty intervening centuries down to the eighteenth; afford names not only illustrious for genius, but (with one exception) for the morality and piety of their compositions. The language which these writers have ennobled has precedency over all existing European tongues in antiquity, in sweetness, and in majesty. It is of easy attainment, gives grace, harmony, and precision to every subject that it touches, and has the advantage of being spoken and written by a divided people, who are, from this circumstance, the least in a situation to alarm the fears and jealousies of Europe. To this language, the northern hordes, who successively inundated those who spoke it, have contributed none of the asperities of their native jargons; indeed, it appears that, in the rejection of the final consonant and the omission of the aspirate, it rather resembles the antient dialects of Italy; while, in point of date, it may in some respects have precedence of the more finished Latin itself.

We collect from Cicero and Quintilian that it was formerly considered as an elegance to strike off the last letter in words; *e.g.*

> " Qui est *omnibu* princeps" — for *omnibus princeps*,
> " Vitâ illâ *dignu* locoque" — for *dignus*,
> " *Floribu* nunquam" — for *floribus*;

and, from the most antient inscriptions produced by Lanzi, we find the *m* equally rejected, and the names of cities retaining the same termination in all their cases. From Cicero, we learn that the use of the aspirate was much less common among the antients than in his time, and that the early Romans pronounced *Cetegos*, *triumpos*, *Cartaginem*, &c., that is, as the modern Italians pronounce those words. The more frequent use of the aspirate was probably derived from the Greek pronunciation. Cato the Censor entirely omitted the *m*, according to Quintilian. The Italian sound of *z* like *st* is very antient, as appears from a medal of Trezæne, on which for Ζευς we find ΣΔευς. *Ct* was generally changed by the antient as by the modern Italians into *tt*, as *Coctius* into *Cottius*, *pactum* into *pattum*, *factum* into *fattum*, &c.; as in Italian *Cottio*, *patto*, *fatto*, &c. — The above, with many similar observations, may be found in Lanzi.

The new language retained so much of the parent idiom, that not the same words only but the same phrases became equally appropriate in both; and hymns have been written which may be called indiscriminately either Latin or Italian. Of this description are the two following:

> " *In mare irato in subita procella*
> *Invoco te, nostra benigna stella!*" &c.

and,

> " *Vivo in acerba pena, in mesto orrore*
> *Quando te non imploro, in te non spero*

Purissima Maria, et in sincero
Te non adoro, et in divino ardore," &c.

The Italian language, under the guidance of its great authors, has assumed those graces and embellishments which raise it above all modern tongues, and distinguish it alike in prose and in verse, in composition and in conversation.

"*Illam quicquid agit, quoquo vestigia flectit*
Componit furtim subsequiturque decor."

If the former glories of Rome have been dimmed, Italy collectively has been perhaps more glorious in modern than in antient days. In agriculture, in charitable and in literary institutions, Mr. Eustace deems this land to have been, until the French Revolution, unrivalled by any European nation. The Italian character also, as we have before observed, claims his attention; and he examines into the truth of those dark stories that formed the subjects from which our fair countrywomen, and the old women of both sexes, have painted their Spalatros and their spectres. From a minute inquiry directed to this point, during a considerable residence in the haunted places, he finds that these nightly deeds are not more common in Italy than in other countries; that their occurrence has long been on the decrease; and that neither France nor England has any right to tax the Italians with a disregard to human life. He represents the roads in Italy as excellent and safe, and the peasantry as laborious and robust, pious and humane. He more than once urges the benefits that would result from erecting the whole peninsula into one kingdom, as a counterpoise to France. We join him in the pious wish. Italy has ever been the grave of the French; and the poet, who sang that the lily is not destined to flourish on the Italian soil, has prophesied the true event.

"*Merlin gli fè veder che quasi tutti*
Gli altri, che poi di Francia scettro avranno,
O di ferro gli eserciti distrutti,
O di fame, O di peste si vedranno;
E che brevi allegrezze, e lunghi lutti,
Poco guadagno, ed infinito danno
Riporteran d'Italia; chè non lice
Che 'l Giglio in quel terreno abbia radice.
Orland. Fur. Cant. 33. 10.

ART. V. *An Essay on the Probability of Sensation in Vegetables*, with additional Observations on Instinct, Sensation, Irritability, &c. By James Perchard Tupper, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and Fellow of the Linnean Society. 8vo. pp. 140. 5s. Boards. White and Co.

WE learn that this Essay originated in some observations which the author had thrown together, when he attended as a student at the hospitals of Guy and St. Thomas, and when he enjoyed the benefit of the botanical instructions of Dr. Smith, the president of the Linnean Society, to whom it is dedicated. The inquiries to which these observations referred were resumed at subsequent intervals of leisure, and expanded into their present more connected form.

Mr. Tupper lays it down as a primary position, which few considerate physiologists will be disposed to impugn, that vitality, as the result of a particular structure of organized parts, and as implying the faculty of reproducing a structure similar to itself, is an attribute of the vegetable as well as of the animal kingdom: but he is at the same time perfectly aware of the futility of those lines of demarcation which have been too rashly alleged to discriminate these two grand departments of organized existence; and he admits that 'the transition from the animal to the plant is effected by shades so imperceptible, that it is difficult and perhaps impossible to determine what are those beings which actually form the last link in the scale of animated existence, and the first in that of vegetables.' He argues for the probability of sensation in vegetables not only from the general analogies which may be traced between animals and plants, but from other phænomena; some of which refer to certain powers of motion that particular species of plants are observed to possess even in a more eminent degree than the inferior orders of animals, 'several species of which are also destitute of *all* locomotive power.' The existence of these attributes, however, does not necessarily imply *volition*; which denotes a mental faculty associated with other qualities, and a power of deliberation and choice exerted on particular occasions. The aptitude and propensity of plants to incline to the light, — the power exhibited by the climbing sorts in moving and turning their stems, branches, or tendrils, — the direction assumed by the roots of trees, and many other vegetables, in quest of proper nourishment, &c. — this ingenious essayist ascribes to *spontaneous* motion or exertion.

'Aquatic plants also furnish some curious examples of spontaneous motion strongly characteristic of instinct. Among these, the *water-lily* affords a very remarkable instance, and that too connected with the reproduction of its species. This plant bears its flowers upon a foot stalk under water; and when the flowering season arrives, the stalk rises perpendicularly without any regard to the stream, until the flowers reach above the surface of the water. At this time some of them expand, and then the antheræ discharge their fecundating dust upon the stigma. About four o'clock in the afternoon the expanded flowers close, and the footstalk lies down either upon or under the water. It is erected every day until the flower has been fully impregnated, when it once more sinks under water, and there remains to ripen its seeds, which at a proper time escape from the fruit, and give birth to new individuals.

' This is asserted by Linnæus and various other naturalists; and, though controverted by some, has been recently confirmed by the observations of Dr. Smith, who authorizes me to use his name on this occasion. In cold or shady weather this phænomenon is less evident, and is explained by the writer last named as entirely owing to the stimulus of light. But yet, I presume, it is also in part referable to instinct, and that light operates only as an auxiliary to that phænomenon.'

What is termed the *sleep* of plants, and flowers, is stated as another striking example of instinctive action in vegetables; or as a proof that they are endued with the power of *self-motion*, which contributes to their well-being, and may therefore be fairly supposed to partake as much of the nature of instinctive action, or to be as necessarily the adjunct of sensation, in the vegetable as in the animal being. Moreover, as, in certain animals, the absence of locomotive power is no criterion of the want of sensation, neither, in vegetables, ought it to be urged against the existence of sensation in them. In short, if any species of living being, from man down to the most humble plant, be destitute of the locomotive power, it is because all the important purposes of welfare and preservation, for which it is given to others, are fully answered without it.

From his review of instinct, volition, and locomotive power, the essayist infers that they are distinct attributes; inasmuch (he says) ' as *instinct* may exist *independently* of the other *two*, and the *locomotive power*, *independently of volition*. Indeed, if we attend to the particular character of the locomotive faculty in many animals, it is evident that the exertion of this power is merely instinctive, though it is not a necessary adjunct either of instinct or of sensation. But at the same time, I apprehend that sensation is necessarily associated with the instinctive faculty, although the former, like the latter, may exist independently both of volition and of the locomotive power; and perhaps we refuse to admit the existence of sensation in vegetables, under the idea that it is connected with the exercise of intellectual powers, which we cannot suppose to appertain to this class of beings.' Mere sensitive power, it is well remarked, does not necessarily imply a thinking and reasoning mind, and may therefore belong to the lowest orders of animals, and to plants.

Mr. Tupper next proceeds to combat the fashionable and ingenious doctrine which deduces vegetable motions from *irritability*, independently of sensation. If by irritability we are to understand a susceptibility of receiving impressions, it naturally pre-supposes sensation; for wherefore bestow a capacity of receiving impressions, if none are to be received? Again, the *permanent* action of irritability differs very materially from the *temporary* action of stimuli applied to the muscles of an amputated limb; and we are not warranted to assert that *vegetable* differs in its nature from *animal* irritability, when we observe that they are subjected to analogous laws, and produce analogous effects.

Having met with great fairness the most plausible objections to his favourite hypothesis, the author prosecutes at considerable length, and with much judgment and ability, the correspondences which may be traced between various departments of the physiological structure of plants and animals; or rather, the correspondences of actions or effects produced by the respective organic structure of both. In some cases, the particular organs destined for certain purposes in the economy of both cannot be demonstrated, in the present state of human knowlege: but we are not, on that account, authorized to deny their existence, while the uniformity of their operations sufficiently indicates their presence.

In reply to the question, *In what particular manner do vegetables feel themselves affected in consequence of any impression which they may receive?* it is observed that the difference between the sentient organs of plants and our own precludes us from forming any idea of the particular kind of pleasure, or pain, which a plant may experience; although we may distinguish in its appearance by which of the two it is affected; as a drooping aspect, for example, evinces pain and uneasiness, while a healthy and vigorous air denotes the enjoyment of well-being.

Another argument, which has been stated against the existence of sensation in vegetables, is deduced from the goodness of the Deity; who, it is urged, would never bestow feeling on beings so much exposed to the depredations of animals, and various other injuries. The answer to such an objection is obvious; that the same reasoning would more forcibly maintain the non-existence of sensation in animals which prey on one another, and which are likewise exposed to innumerable accidents and injuries. We have seldom seen this view of the subject treated in a more impressive and becoming manner than in the pages of the present Essay, though the passage to which we allude is too long for our quotation. — Lastly, many vegetable actions, and the means of defence with which plants are furnished, as prickles, stings, effluvia, &c., would lead us to infer that they are, moreover, endued with the principle of self-preservation.

'From this general view of the subject, it is evident that animals and vegetables reciprocally tend to the maintenance of a due balance of life through the whole creation; and the particular manner in which this is accomplished is one of those circumstances attending the institutions of nature, which cannot fail to convince us of the existence of a superintendent Providence. If there were not a check to the destruction of living beings, as well as to their undue increase, some of the species would soon be exterminated: and if there were a chasm formed in consequence of the extinction of even the most insignificant species, the whole system would be thrown into confusion; all order would be at an end; and man himself would be at last incapable of resisting this seemingly trifling shock, and the whole living creation would soon be annihilated.

> ' "—— each moss,
> Each shell, each crawling insect, holds a rank
> Important in the plan of HIM who fram'd
> This scale of beings; holds a rank, which lost
> Would break the chain, and leave behind a gap
> Which nature's self would rue." '——

'We must also bear in mind, that although the means of defence which nature has given to animals and vegetables, may not prove always effectual for their individual preservation; yet, millions of them go through the natural course of their existence, without having suffered from the depredations of their enemies. And even those individuals, which fall a sacrifice to the wants or the appetites of others, have for the most part enjoyed that portion of existence allotted to them, and experienced every degree of happiness of which their nature is capable.

'The microscope has discovered to us an innumerable multitude of beings, of whose existence we had no idea before; and though legions of these are daily devoured by the innumerable tribes of other animals that feed on the vegetables or fluids where these diminutive creatures abound; yet, can we reasonably imagine that such a profusion of living beings exists without enjoyment? Or, shall we suppose that sensation has been bestowed on them merely to swell the catalogue of sufferings, and multiply the sum of misery in the animal world? — Such an idea is as revolting to reason, as it is incompatible with the infinite goodness of "NATURE'S GOD." We may, therefore, confidently believe that these diminutive beings have their season of enjoyment, as well as the enormous Leviathan, although perhaps only a few hours encircle the whole course of their appointed existence!

'How infinite then is that Power who could organize such an atom of matter, and give it life and motion! — and how transcendent in goodness, to endue it also with the means of enjoying its existence! And surely, that Being, by whom such things can be effected, can likewise bestow on vegetables a capacity to enjoy their own state of life; and by which, too, the sum of happiness in the universe will be abundantly multiplied!'

Such is a faint outline of the train of Mr. Tupper's speculations: but the metaphysician and the physiologist, who would duly appreciate the weight and the catenation of his ideas, must resort to the pages in which they are recorded. — The additional observations are well calculated to corroborate his doctrines; and the doctrines themselves, without being highly fanciful or extravagant, are urged with singular modesty, and expressed in correct and elegant language. To the general spirit of the author's sentiments, and of the arguments by which he supports them, we cordially subscribe: but all his ingenuity has failed to convince us that brute animals are destitute of a certain degree of rationality and intelligence. To this latter topic, we have, on various occasions, incidentally adverted; and we cannot at present afford to discuss it in detail: but those persons, who have most diligently watched the manners of the brute creation, do not require to be informed of the diversities of talent and character which are exhibited by individuals of the same species, of the changes induced on their natural habits by domestication, of the educational acquirements of some of the most sagacious, of concerted plans executed by the more social tribes, of the tricks and stratagems practised by some birds to decoy the intruder from their young, of wonderful instances of memory in the horse, the dog, and the elephant, and of a change of conduct in the same individual wild animal, resulting from the observation and experience which are the consequences of age. Are such phænomena resolvable into the dictates of blind impulse, or *instinct?* The latter is, no doubt, a very convenient term: but it is, in many cases, a mere expression of our ignorance of motives, or of the origin of those proceedings which we cannot readily ascribe to the reasoning process. The Wolf was certainly never celebrated for his mental refinement, or for any uncommon share of sagacity; and yet, in the history of his life, we read a comment that will startle those who are strangers to his habits and practices. They who have been much addicted to the hunting of this animal have remarked a very sensible difference between the proceedings of a young and raw, and those of a full-grown and instructed individual of the species. Young wolves, after having passed two months in the litter, during which period they are fed by their parents, afterward follow their dam, which is no longer able to answer the demands of their daily increasing voracity. In her society, and instructed by her example, they tear live animals in pieces, try their fortune in the chace, and gradually provide for the common wants of the family. The habitual exercise of rapine, under the guidance of an experienced mother, communicates to them, every day, some ideas relative to the pursuit of their object. They become acquainted with the retreats of their game; their senses are alive to all sorts of impressions, which they gradually discriminate; and they correct precipitate or erroneous judgments by the sense of smell. When they are eight or nine months old, their mother leaves them to their own devices, and goes in quest of a male: but the young family still continue united for some time, till their ravenous propensities no longer admit participation of spoil. The strongest then remain masters of the spot, and the more weakly retire to seek subsistence in other quarters. When they surmount this critical period, their augmented strength and instruction multiply their facilities of existence; and they are enabled to attack large animals, one of which will afford them nourishment for several days. They carefully conceal the remnants of their repast, but without relaxing their zeal in the chace; and they have recourse to their hidden morsels only when the pursuit has proved unsuccessful. Such are some of the purely natural habitudes of the wolf: but they are wonderfully modified in those districts in which he dreads the approach of man; and in which the constant necessity of shunning snares, and providing for safety, compels him to extend the sphere of his activity, and to exercise his ideas on a greater number of objects. His procedure, which is naturally free and bold, now becomes circumspect and timid; his appetite is often unsatisfied, from fear; and he distinguishes the sensations recalled by memory, from those which are furnished by the actual use of his faculties. At the moment, therefore, when he scents a flock, confined in a park, the idea of the shepherd and his dog is also present to his thoughts; and, balancing the different impressions, he eyes the height of the inclosure, compares it with his strength, judges of the difficulty of clearing it when encumbered with his spoil, and desists from the fruitless or hazardous attempt: whereas, from a flock scattered in an open field, he will seize a sheep even in sight of the shepherd, especially if the neighbourhood of a wood favours his escape. Various other expedients, solely suggested by situation and circumstances, might be mentioned, which Mr. Tupper may perhaps be inclined to ascribe to *spontaneous* exertion: but this term involves in its very essence the notion of *will*, and *will* implies choice, deliberation, or acts of judgment.

ART. VI. *Religion and Policy*, and the Countenance and Assistance each should give to the other. With a Survey of the Power and Jurisdiction of the Pope in the Dominions of other Princes. By Edward Earl of Clarendon, Lord High Chancellor of England, and Chancellor of the University of Oxford. 2 Vols. large 8vo. Printed at the Clarendon Press, Oxford. Price 1l. 6s. in Sheets.

THE authenticity of this posthumous publication is ascertained by the following advertisement:

'Henry Viscount Cornbury, who was called up to the House of Peers by the title of Lord Hyde, in the life-time of his father, Henry Earl of Rochester, by a codicil to his will, dated Aug. 10. 1751, left divers MSS. of his great grandfather, Edward Earl of Clarendon, to trustees, with a direction that the money to arise from the sale or publication thereof should be employed "as a beginning of a Fund for supporting a Manage or Academy for riding and other useful exercises in Oxford;" a plan of this sort having been also recommended by Lord Clarendon in his Dialogue on Education.

'Lord Cornbury dying before his father, this bequest did not take effect. But Catharine, one of the daughters of Henry Earl of Rochester, and late Duchess Dowager of Queensberry, whose property these MSS. became, afterwards by deed gave them, together with all the monies which had arisen or might arise from the sale or publication of them, to Dr. Robert Drummond, then Archbishop of York, William then Earl of Mansfield, and Dr. William Markham, then Bishop of Chester, upon trust for the like purposes as those expressed by Lord Hyde in his codicil.

'The present trustees, William Earl of Mansfield, John Lord Bishop of London, The Right Hon. Charles Abbot, Speaker of the House of Commons, and the Rev. Dr. Cyril Jackson, (late Dean of Christ Church, Oxford,) having found the following unpublished Work amongst these MSS. have proceeded in the execution of their trust to publish it: and it is presumed that the following information may be sufficient to establish its authenticity.

'The Manuscript is comprised in 407 folio pages fairly written, and bears date on the last page, Moulins, 12th Feb. $167\frac{3}{4}$. Laurence Earl of Rochester, son of Edward the first Earl of Clarendon, in a letter to the Rev. Dr. Turner, President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, dated Nov. 30. 1710, speaking of this work, calls it a MS. of his father's, intitled Religion and Policy; and says, "It is in the same hand-writing that most of the History was in." And the Earl of Rochester's grandson, Henry Viscount Cornbury, in a memorandum, of the 7th June 1729, prefixed to the MS., describes it in the state in which it is now found, and as the work of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon.

'In committing this work to the press, no alteration from the copy has been made, except in the orthography, and where grammatical or verbal inaccuracies have appeared to require it. The work itself has been divided into chapters, according to the author's division of his subject; and a table of contents and an index have been added.'

Though this treatise was penned many years ago, it is very applicable to the question now in debate between Catholics and Government; and, as the noble author appears to have studied the subject with much assiduity, to have taken into his survey all the evidence of history which applies to the case, and to have built his reflections on a series of undeniable facts, his opinion is of great importance. Lord C. was certainly well disposed towards the Catholics, and desirous of their admission to all the privileges of British subjects: but, in consequence of the undefined extent of the Pope's spiritual authority, to which they refer the ultimate direction of their consciences, he conceives that 'their fidelity can be no longer depended on than the Pope will permit them to be loyal, which is a very loose and insecure title for kings to the duty and loyalty of their subjects.' To remove all doubt of the danger of Catholicism, considered in a political point of view, and to render it no more alarming to civil governors than any other religious sect, his Lordship endeavours to convince the members of this church that a slavish submission to the Pope is no essential part of their religion; that the history of pontifical usurpations and tyranny reflects no credit on it; that several Catholic countries disclaim his authority; and that it behoves the Catholic British church to make itself independent of the Papal chair, and to govern itself completely by a general council of its own. Advice similar in substance we have ventured to offer to the Catholics of Ireland; because, though in the present aspect of affairs, and with the existing general diffusion of knowlege throughout Europe, little fear can be entertained of the repetition of those times in which kings trembled at the frown of the pretended successors of St. Peter, yet to allow of such an anomaly in government as an appeal to an extraneous jurisdiction, whether at Rome or any where else, whether on a civil or a religious account, would be weakness which could effect no good, though it might never do any harm. Catholics do not seem to be sufficiently impressed with the singularity of their case, which, in this respect, differs from that of all other religionists: but, when the state is disposed to concede to them all the privileges of the constitution, they should strive to obviate this difficulty.

Lord Clarendon's present tract, written abroad during his banishment, though full of long sentences, contains no irritating declamation; being intended, by a patient examination of the history of the Popes from their origin to his own time, to convince the Catholic body that their exorbitant affectation of superiority and sovereignty has operated more to the scandal and injury of religion than to its profit. Facts are stubborn things; and with facts in great abundance we are supplied as a basis on which Lord C. builds his reasoning. The detail presents us, indeed, with a series of transactions which, though indisputable, appear now to be almost incredible; and which shew us that, notwithstanding our Saviour declared his kingdom *not* to be of this world, his pretended vicars have sought to domineer over all the potentates of the earth.[*]

It is interesting to inquire into the origin of the pretensions of the See of Rome, into the several stages of its progress in usurpation, and into the consequences which have hence resulted. The pages before us furnish abundant documents on each of these points. Nothing will be found in the New Testament to justify the Bishop of Rome in claiming precedence over other Christian bishops, and nothing which renders it probable that St. Peter was ever Bishop of Rome. It is even very doubtful whether this poor fisherman of the Galilean lake ever saw the capital of the Roman world: but, supposing him to have visited it, he could never have been appointed its bishop. In the apostolic age, the head of the Christian sect there could never have assumed so imposing a title; and Peter in particular would not have done it in a Gentile city; for he was expressly sent to the Circumcision, or to his countrymen the Jews[†]. If any of the apostles had assumed the title of Bishop of Rome, it would have been St. Paul. Even supposing, however, that Peter was appointed its bishop, we have no evidence of his having named a successor; nor was any notice taken of a series of Popes from him as the first Pope, till the time of Constantine the Great, A. D. 320; and the very uncertainty of the names of the bishops in the series is sufficient to induce a suspicion that the whole account is fabulous. Lord C. places the matter in another point of view:

> 'Though Rome was for some time the seat of the empire and so the place to which men were obliged to resort upon several occasions, yet the place and city itself never appeared to be chosen by God with any peculiar privilege or title for his worship; but on the contrary hath borne the deep marks of his displeasure in being exposed to

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[*] The reader will compare this article with Mr. Eustace's representation of the pontifical character, in p. 39—41. of this Number, and observe the difference between the opinion of a Protestant English nobleman and a Catholic English clergyman.

[†] Lardner, in his notice of Theophilus Bishop of Antioch, quotes a passage from Jerom, in which this father reckons Theophilus as the seventh Bishop of Antioch from St. Peter. Now, if Peter was the first Bishop of Antioch, he could scarcely have been the first Bishop of Rome.

more affronts, more sackings and devastations than any other great city in Europe hath been. And therefore, that after the glory of the empire is departed from it, it should still retain a power to give to all the empires and kingdoms of the world a supreme magistrate to whom they are bound to submit and obey in all those things which concern the salvation of their souls and their hopes in the next world, is so very irrational, that less than the most clear evidence that it is the will of God it shall be so can never convince mankind that they ought to consent thereunto. From the time that the manner of elections was taken notice of, sometimes the Pope was chosen by the clergy and people of Rome, and sometimes by the clergy alone: and when there were scandalous elections made upon which schisms ensued, sometimes the Emperor, sometimes the Kings of Italy, and sometimes the Exarch, regulated those consentions, and settled such a Pope as they thought fit; sometimes appointing them to choose such a man, and sometimes that none should be admitted to be Pope until, upon notice given to the Emperor, his election should be confirmed or approved by him. Nor was there any form prescribed or accustomed for those elections till the year one thousand and sixty, when Pope Nicholas the Second (whose own election might well have been questioned, he being chosen upon a schism when Benedict the Tenth pretended to be Pope and continued so nine months, and then waved the contest and returned to his bishopric of Velitri,) made a decree that from thenceforth the election of the Pope should be only in the Cardinals.'

When Constantine made profession of Christianity, the Popes began to assume some importance: but a long period elapsed before they obtained that universal domination which they afterward arrogated; and it is worthy of remark that they did not arrive at full power till Pepin, King of France, had given the exarchat of Ravenna to the church. By this donation, which was confirmed by Charlemagne with other privileges, the Popes became temporal sovereigns: but, in lieu of these benefits, the right of approving, and consequently of disapproving, the election of the Bishops of Rome was conceded to the Emperor; which shews the state of the Papal power at that period. Every thing, however, was in train to favour its usurpations. The ignorance and dissentions which prevailed in Europe gave to the clergy great privileges; they became a third estate; and the Roman Pontiff wished to be considered as their supreme head. Yet it is evident that universal submission to the Pope was not for ages a doctrine of the Catholic church. Even in the reign of William the Conqueror, ecclesiastical laws (says Lord C., p. 100,101.) were altered or changed without any reference to the Pope; and Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, then 'took upon him,' without authority from Rome, to canonize Adelmus.

Appeals to the supposed successors of St. Peter having grown into practice on the Continent, the Popes, on the slightest occasions, fulminated their thunders against Emperors and Kings, and placed whole kingdoms under their interdicts. Offended that he was not consulted on a royal marriage, John XIX. put all France under an interdiction; and such were the superstitious alarms of the multitude, that 'the people generally submitted themselves with that humility, that all the domestic servants of the King (excepting two or three) abandoned him, and they cast whatever was taken from his table to the dogs; there being no man, however poor, who would eat any of the meat which he had touched.' (P. 105.)

We are next called to notice the excommunication of the Emperor, by Gregory VII., (Hildebrand,) who ascended the Papal chair A. D. 1075; the affair of Thomas à Becket; the Crusades, &c.; and to shew how lofty were the pretensions of the see of Rome, Lord C. copies parts of two bulls issued by Innocent III., one of which contains these words; "*Ad honorem et gloriam Apostolicæ sedis, quam constitutam super gentes et regna;*" and the other has expressions still more pointed: "*Sic ad firmamentum universalis ecclesiæ, quæ cœli nomine nuncupatur, duas magnas instituit dignitates, majorem quæ quasi diebus animabus præesset, et minorem quæ quasi noctibus præesset corporibus, quæ sunt Pontificialis authoritas et Regalis potestas.*"

If the history of our King John makes a shabby figure in this review of Papal usurpations, the remarks of Lord Clarendon will serve to rescue the credit of the nobles:

> 'Indeed the Popes found not so much tameness any where as in England, nor exercised their jurisdiction any where so wantonly, as in the reign of those two Kings Henry the Second and King John; of which their successors quickly shewed disdain enough, and by degrees freed themselves from a power that knew not how to be moderate. Nor can it be much wondered at, that the Pope should obtain any thing from King John, who had no title to the crown but usurpation, and had so many enemies to contend with in England and in France. To shew that the subjection to the Pope was not of the religion of that time, the most popular ground which the nobility alleged to justify their taking arms against the King was, the concessions he had made to the Pope. And the King himself in his greatest agonies afterwards, and when he was most perplexed, with much passion said, (as Matthew Paris, who is the best author of that time, reports,) "Since the time I subjected myself and my kingdom to the Church of Rome, nothing hath happened prosperously, but all things contrary to me." So that whatever the Pope got then in England is to be imputed to the guilt and weakness of the King, not to the consent of the time.'

We cannot specify all the instances quoted by this noble author, of sovereigns being deprived of their kingdoms or released from their most solemn oaths, and of subjects absolved from their allegiance, by the power of the Popes; nor will the detail be necessary to those who are acquainted with the history of European states.

Such arrogance in obscure individuals, who by the choice of ecclesiastics were raised to the pretended chair of St. Peter, could not have been tolerated, had not Europe laboured under the greatest infatuation: but the charm, we should have thought, must have been dissolved by the schism which subsequently broke out even in the popedom itself, when Clement and Urban discharged their spiritual artillery at each other. This schism, observes Lord C., lasted forty years; during which period it was impossible to say which was the true Pope: but, from this circumstance, which made the assumed infallibility doubtful, it clearly appears 'that the Christian religion may be preserved in its integrity without any Pope.' Indeed, the Council of Pisa declared both Popes to be schismatical. To increase the ridicule of this spiritual farce, a third Pope started up; and the Council of Constance, interfering in this strange contest for infallibility, arrogated a superiority over the Papal see, pronounced all the pretended Popes schismatical, and declared the see to be void. This, however, did not settle the business. For a long period, one set of Popes held their court at Rome and another at Avignon; and Lord C. reckons that 'a period of one hundred and ten years elapsed without a peaceable Pope.' (P. 249.)

Contemplating the state of the popedom from the election of Eugenius IV., A.D. 1431, to Paul III., A.D. 1534, *i.e.* from the end of the schism to the Reformation, the noble author points to many particulars worthy of notice, and is not sparing in his reflections. He attributes the loss of Constantinople, by which the interests of the Christian church were deeply affected, to 'that fatal schism which, for so many years, kept all Christian kings divided in the quarrel, and diverted them from being united in any one honourable or generous action for the good of Christianity.' (P. 255.) In conjunction with this subject, he traces the causes and consequences of the separation between the church of Rome and the Greek church.

On the private lives of the Popes, we shall not here comment: but, as Alexander VI. (Borgia) assumed, by a bull dated May 14. 1493, the power of granting the East and West Indies to Ferdinand and Isabella, it may be proper to insert here a sketch of his character:

> 'In the place of Innocent the Eighth, to the universal amazement and scandal of Christianity, the Cardinal Borgia was elected, or declared Pope, with the most infamous circumstances of corruption that

ever accompanied the most secular transaction, and was called Alexander the Sixth; of whom I shall say the less, because his memory is the most odious, and the most blasted by the universal consent of all Catholic writers, who acknowledge him to be an eternal reproach to the holy chair. Monsieur Mezeray thinks he hath sufficiently described him, by saying, that never any Mahometan prince was ever more vicious, more wicked, more infidel than he; and if any one ever surpassed him in all kind of abominations and crimes, it was his bastard son Cæsar Borgia.'

Having quoted the language of the Popish bulls, and instanced the uneasiness of sovereigns occasioned by a variety of Papal usurpations, Lord C. offers these judicious remarks:

'By this that hath been said, it is manifest enough what opinion of, or reverence for, the infallible chair at that Catholic time, Kings, Princes, and Bishops had, both for the ecclesiastical and temporal authority thereof; by their so frequent contemning all his spiritual censures, and their appealing to a future general Council. And there needs no other instance than the authority he usurped in the excommunication of so many sovereign Princes of all degrees; the absolving their subjects from their allegiance and obedience; his interdicting the exercise of their religion in all their dominions; and his conferring "*ex plenitudine potestatis*" their dominions and territories upon those he favoured more, or upon those who, without any colour of right, would by force invade the same; thereby opening a door to let in all the blood, and rapine, and devastation upon a peaceable Catholic people that could be exercised by the most barbarous and savage enemies: and all this upon no other ground or pretence than that they did not wish well to Catholic religion, and were schismatics and heretics; when none of them professed to know any other religion than that which he pretended to be of: nor to be of any church than the same of which he would be thought the head. I say, there needs no other evidence than the insolence, actions, and pretences of Julius the Second, (whose pride and tyranny wiped out the memory of the impieties of Alexander the Sixth,) to convince all Kings, Princes, and States, how insecure their condition and government must be, and how indevoted and unfaithful their subjects may be to them, if the Pope hath such a power over them as he lays claim to, and hath exercised.'

A long account is given, in this part of the work, of the excommunication of Henry VIII.: but with this fact English readers are well acquainted.

The period from the calling to the conclusion of the Council of Trent, or from Paul III. to Pius V., A.D. 1566, is fertile in incidents illustrative of the spirit and tendency of the popedom: but we need advert only to two particulars as specimens; the first is the institution of the order of the Jesuits, and the second the establishment of the Inquisition; by which, observes Lord C., (p. 373.) 'the spirit of the Spanish nation was broken, and its understanding darkened.'

Of the celebrated Council of Trent itself, and of its perturbed sittings, ample details are given, and its result is thus summed up:

'In this disorder, and almost in the same confusion in which it had been continued, this famous Council of Trent, after it had sat for above the space of eighteen months in continual dissensions, ended in a visible harmony in the month of December, in the year fifteen hundred sixty-three, to the eternal honour of Pius the Fourth; who, it cannot be denied, steered it with wonderful dexterity, and, by the bounty and good influence of his own stars, and the rare accidents which intervened, brought it to such a consistency as hath given more credit, and produced more unity to that Church, than could have been expected either from the debates or the conclusions. The articles were signed by four Legates, two other Cardinals, three Patriarchs, five-and-twenty Archbishops, a hundred sixty-eight Bishops, seven Abbots Benedictines, nine-and-thirty Proctors of the Prelates absent, and seven Generals of Orders; so that the whole subscriptions were of two hundred and fifty-five hands; and, considering the paucity of the number, besides the presumption of imposing rules, and restraining privileges, contrary to the laws and customs of all œcumenical councils, it is no wonder that the same is not received in many Catholic as well as Protestant kingdoms; and still less that the Church of England rejects what the State never admitted, and hath more reverence for the decrees of its own Councils, (which always consist of much greater numbers,) than the subscribers to those articles of Trent amount unto: and if the parts and learning of the subscribers (for all the names of both are easily known) be considered, there will be more men of profound learning and confessed or eminent piety found in the Synod held in that time in our own country, and in all the Synods which have since been held there, than there were at any time in Trent; though it is not denied that there were many of great estimation in letters, and of lives very unblameable; and yet that kind of learning is much improved since that time, and even in that Church, which they will not deny.'

The last two chapters in the historical part of this work include the period from A.D. 1566 to 1670, or from Pius V. to Clement X. Here the excommunication of Elizabeth and the horrid massacre of St. Bartholomew fall under the noble author's review; and he does not forget to remind us that Gregory XIII., who was then in the Papal chair, 'no sooner had notice of that barbarous and inhuman massacre, than he went himself in the most solemn procession to the church of St. Lewis in Rome, to thank God for that happy victory.' (P. 427.)

As we proceed in this history, we perceive the sovereigns of Europe asserting their rights against the pretensions of the court of Rome; and, under the pontificate of Gregory XV., we find this court obliged to change its policy, and to relax in its claims. In proof of this important fact, Lord C. remarks, (p. 526.) 'that, in the republication of the *Bullarium* (or Collection

tion of the bulls issued by the Popes) all those bulls which were sent abroad in the time of Gregory XIII., Sixtus V., and Clement VIII., to the eternal reproach of the crown of France, were left out, that the presumption and malignity of them might be forgotten.' The resentment of the King of France, and the humiliation to which he subjected the Pope, in consequence of the violence offered by the Corsican guard, in the city of Rome, to the French ambassador, manifest a very striking proof of the decline of Papal despotism, towards the end of the 17th century.

After having, in nine long chapters, afforded a sufficiently ample display of Papal usurpations, and after having attended every Pope, from St. Peter to Clement X, (who was living when the noble author wrote, but died in 1676,) through a series, according to the best account, of 243 Popes, Lord C. closes the details of this historical discourse with the two following observations:

'The first is, the extreme scandal and damage religion hath sustained from this exorbitant affectation of superiority and sovereignty in the Pope; the greatest schisms and separations amongst Christians having flowed from that fountain; and from thence the greatest ruin to kings and kingdoms, in the vast consumption of treasure and blood in unnatural wars and rebellions, having had their original.

'The second is, that Catholic Princes themselves, who, for their own benefit and mutual exchange of conveniencies, do continue that correspondence with the Popes, and do themselves pay and enjoin their subjects to render that submission and obedience to him, have not that opinion of his divine right, nor do they look upon it as any part of their religion; so that in truth the obligation which is imposed upon the Catholic subjects of Protestant Princes is another religion, or at least consists of more articles of faith than the Catholic Princes and their subjects do profess to believe.'

Since the latter remark applies so closely to the Catholic subjects of the British empire, the posthumous work before us is intitled to the fullest consideration. Lord Clarendon was persuaded that no union can take place between the Catholic and the Protestant church, till the power of the Pope is destroyed; and he recommends a National Council, by which as in other countries the Catholic church may be made independent of all foreign jurisdiction. If the Catholics will abjure the Pope, then, he contends, may the state repeal the penal laws against them; and he hopes that they will find enough of their best clergy to concur with and support them in this resolution. With much liberality, this noble author endeavours to place Catholics and Protestants on good terms with each other; and he calls on the former to adopt those principles of policy, by which every objection to their admission to the fullest enjoyment

ment of civil rights in Protestant states would be removed. He thus concludes:

> 'This would be the way, and the only way, to make the practice of religion flourish amongst Christians, without any violation of Christian charity; and, the uncharitableness of all faction being removed, there would remain such an innocence and integrity in the heart, as would make our religion acceptable to God; and when no mischievous action doth necessarily result from our opinions, how erroneous soever, we should be no more offended with each other for those differences, than for the distinct colour of our eyes or hair.'

We wish to persuade ourselves that, as this work was written many years ago by a nobleman who was eminent for his talents, the long account which we have given of it will not be deemed superfluous; and that Catholics, while they must rest assured of the good intentions of the writer, will not regard it as a party-publication, but duly consider what good they can derive from the advice which it contains.

Art. VII. *The Code Napoleon,* verbally translated from the French; to which is prefixed an Introductory Discourse, &c. By Bryan Barrett, of Gray's-Inn. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Reed.

Whatever becomes of the dynasty of Napoleon, it is probable that the Code of Law, which passes under his name, will in some shape be perpetuated, so far as to remain an object of interesting inquiry to the present and to future generations. Calculated as it is in many respects for the purposes of rational government, and exempt from any taint of the visionary and mischievous principles of the revolutionary system, surely the name alone of its founder will not be sufficient to induce the sound part of the French nation, under any ruler, entirely to annul its provisions. If it had no other merit than that of having given to the kingdom of France one uniform law, in the place of a great variety of clashing and irreconcileable systems of judicature, which formerly prevailed in its different provinces, this alone would afford it a claim to continuance which cannot fail, after eleven years' experience, to be strongly felt and universally appreciated. These considerations, together with the assurance specifically announced in the public acts recognized by the restored monarch, encourage us to believe that no apology is necessary for requesting the reader's attention to a succinct account of the work announced at the head of this article; more especially as it forms a proper sequel to the observations of which they are already in possession, on publications intimately connected with the present.

The great acts of legislation, which have from time to time appeared in the world, are divisible into two kinds, adapted to the occasions and the state of society which produced them. The first discovery which occurs to men, after having exchanged a separate and independent existence for social union, is the necessity of consenting to some fixed rules, which may determine the portion of individual free-agency that each member must resign, in return for the benefits of mutual strength and protection which he claims from the whole body. This consideration has led to the establishment of laws formed for the earliest stages of society, and founded only on original principles of mutual justice and utility: but universal experience has shewn that, in proportion to the duration and extent of societies, the laws adapted to their government have a natural and unavoidable tendency to multiply; and to become, from the fluctuations of manners and interests, perplexed, obscure, and contradictory. The second species of legislative labour has therefore been employed in pruning, digesting, and elucidating the unwieldy mass of jarring laws which the progress of time had accumulated. Without entering into a wider discussion on this topic, or going in search of all the historical illustrations of it which might be collected, we may adduce, as apt examples of our meaning, the Twelve Tables of Rome, and the Pandects of Justinian. The first of these was formed for society comparatively in its infancy; and the second was the result of that endless confusion into which the same laws had unavoidably run by the lapse of a thousand years. The task of reforming the laws of a country has been, in all times, a favourite object with those legislators who have entertained the ambition of securing a place in the memory of posterity: the most remarkable works of this character, in modern times, being the Body of Laws framed and published by Louis the XIVth in 1667, and the Code of Frederic the Great of Prussia, compiled for the government of his dominions in 1761.

We should have been glad if the limits of the present article had allowed us a free scope for discussing this interesting topic, with reference to our own country; and for considering more at large the agreeable speculations of those who are convinced that the present state of our jurisprudence requires a measure similar to the revision of the Roman laws by Justinian. This opinion is intitled to the greater weight, because it cannot be imputed to any modern spirit of innovation: for it is well known that Sir Francis Bacon, who was never accused of harbouring wild schemes of reform, laboured with great earnestness to procure a revision of our laws, which he proposed to methodize and reduce into one code. In pursuance of this favourite measure, he drew up a plan, which is still extant, for the execution of that great work, assigning the reasons for its expediency; and, in justice to James the First, to whom that plan is addressed, it must be admitted that the design did not fail from any discouragement on his part: on the contrary, that Prince recommended the "Reformation of the statutes and acts of parliament as a worthy work, which it well deserved a parliament to be sat of purpose for it." At that time, the statutes were not one-tenth part so voluminous as they are at present: the statutes of this reign alone being equal to more than one-third of the whole from the time of Henry the Third. A crude project was conceived and some attempts made towards the execution of it, in the Long Parliament; the failure of which has been attributed to the cabals of the lawyers, whose apprehensions for the loss of their profits induced them (according to the vulgar stories of that time) to hold secret meetings, and bestow large bribes in frustrating the design. This story, however, may safely be placed to the account of the violent prejudice which then prevailed against that body; and which occasioned, as Whitelock informs us, a solemn debate whether they should not be disqualified from sitting in parliament. The truth is that such a work, though likely enough to engage the *fancy*, was far above the *skill* of such workmen as would then have been employed about it; and we are neither to wonder nor to lament that the conception was not matured: but we may be allowed to regret the causes, whatever they were, which prevented the great and philosophic mind of Bacon from employing its powers in that noble undertaking: since a man so qualified for the task,—in whom penetration was so happily combined with experience, genuine philosophy, and the best spirit of antient and modern knowlege,—may not easily be found again. Yet the difficulty of the object can never occur as a decisive objection to any person who reflects on the state of the Roman laws when their reformation was effected under the auspices of Justinian; and who considers that the magnitude of the labour had been so much over-rated, that the completion of the design was effected in three years, being less than one-third of the period allotted by the Emperor for its accomplishment.

In France, however, besides the inconvenience arising from the vast mass of obscure, contradictory, and undigested materials of which the laws were composed, and which objection was common to those of all other nations whose laws are formed out of the accumulations of many ages, another imperfection called loudly for redress. This was the diversity and even contrariety in the laws which prevailed in the several provinces;—

or the want of a common law of the land:—an evil which was universally acknowleged, but which was so deeply rooted as to resist all peaceable means of reformation, and manifested that any alteration could be effected only by a convulsion which broke down all antient establishments whatever. The opportunity afforded by the state of France, after the late Revolution, for correcting so injurious a system, could not be overlooked in framing a new government, by a legislator whose counsels possessed even the most moderate portion of wisdom.—To set this matter in the clearest light, it must be recollected that France, like all the other European countries which fell by conquest under the subjection of the northern invaders, was parcelled out into distinct principalities or duchies; of which the chiefs indeed owned a nominal allegiance to one sovereign, but which were themselves subject to their separate governments, had distinct legislatures, and were regulated by institutions that had no dependence on the common head. The states were gradually swallowed up by the sovereignty, as far as the powers of government were concerned, but they still retained their own peculiar laws and regulations. England was the only one of those countries which had early attained an entire uniformity in this respect; and it is not an unlikely nor an unpleasing conjecture that the collection of laws promulgated by Alfred had this salutary object in contemplation. The separate states, into which the country had been broken, were indeed nominally formed into one kingdom: but it is probable that much of the local distinctions, peculiar to the laws and ordinances of each state, continued to prevail, and rendered the coalition doubtful and imperfect. It is indifferent, therefore, to the glory of that great and wise prince, whether he was the author or compiler of that body of laws which bears his name, if he sowed the seed of his country's greatness by first conferring on it that stable union which arises only from living beneath the same system of laws and civil polity.

Under the old order of things in France, the general or written law was every where modified and controuled by the customary or local law. Among the customary laws, were more than 180 that were general, and extending more or less over the various provinces; and these general customs were again modified by local usages. Neither the Salic Law, which was the first code of the Franks after their establishment in Gaul, nor the Capitularies which followed them, abrogated or entirely superseded the usages or customs of the countries in which they were promulgated: those laws only were abolished by them which were contrary to the regulations which they established. In other respects, the codes not only permitted, but in some instances expressly directed, that the old usages should remain in force; and, after the antient Codes and Capitularies fell into disuse, these customs greatly multiplied. The monarchs of the Capetian line, in the charters by which they granted fiefs, prescribed the terms on which they were to be holden; and, in imitation of their sovereigns, the great vassals of the crown granted their charters for regulating the possessions holden of them. Thus each seignory had its particular usages; and such was their diversity that, throughout the whole kingdom, two seignories could scarcely be found which were governed in every point by the same law. Charles the Seventh, some time after he had expelled the English from France, (*i. e.* in the year 1453,) adopted a plan for ascertaining rather than reducing to uniformity these various usages. By his letters-patent, he assembled the three estates in each province; and, under the direction of this assembly, the judges, greffiers, and the other judicial and ministerial officers, prepared memoirs of all the customs, usages, and forms of practice, which they had been accustomed to observe from traditionary authority. These memoirs were laid before the assembly, who referred them to chosen committees, to arrange and report their contents. The minutes thus framed were read in the assembly; and the articles being separately approved or corrected, according to the knowlege and suggestions of the individual members, the whole was ratified and transmitted to parliament to be registered. The customs of each place, thus reduced to writing and sanctioned, were called the *Coutumier* of that place; and these were formed into one collection, and called the *Coutumier de France*, or the *Grand Coutumier*. As we may readily suppose, the variation in these customary laws was so great, that the Chancellor D'Aguesseau regarded the project of Bourjon, of finding out a common principle among them all, as wholly impracticable. The impossibility of superseding or of reconciling this variety of local jurisprudence frustrated all the good effects that were intended by the measure of Louis XIV.; and, while the excellence of the Marine Code of that monarch, which was not impeded by a similar obstacle, has led to its adoption as a standard by the consent of most European nations, the Civil Code became altogether ineffective.

In this state of things, the Revolution, by levelling the antient edifice to the ground, afforded the only possible means of removing the evil. Advantages that are purchased at a price so much above their value should least of all be neglected; and both the design and the execution of a systematic code, which might give to France the benefit of an uniform jurisprudence, must be applauded as the wisest and most salutary measure which its existing condition could suggest. The several parts of the work were not published at one time, but the respective titles or heads were promulgated as each received the sanction of the legislature at different periods, between the 15th of March 1803, and the 25th of March 1804.

We shall now take a succinct view of the principal contents of the Code; which we shall do the more summarily because we have already performed the same task in our review of the Discussions on the Civil Code, (see Appendix to Vol. lv. p. 449. and Appendix to Vol. lvi. p. 449.) and shall consider this article as only a supplement.

The arrangement is the same with that which prevails in the Institutes of Justinian, and is the most simple and natural which the subject admits, viz. proceeding from *Persons* to *Things*. — The first title regards the *Enjoyment and the Privation of Civil Rights*. The second regulates the form of the *Public Registries*, or what are called *Acts of the Civil State*; a most useful and important ordinance, by which a register is provided for births, marriages, and deaths. Whether any provision of this sort existed under the old order of things, we are not able to say: but, if it be newly introduced by the present system, it is a strong recommendation of the good sense of the new legislators. — The heads of *Domicile* and *Absentees* occupy the third and fourth titles. The regulations regarding the latter are numerous and minute; arising, probably, from the peculiar circumstances of the country, in consequence of the emigration caused by the Revolution.

The fifth title concerns the important subject of *Marriage*; which is divided into separate chapters, relating first to qualifications and conditions, and secondly to the formalities necessary to constitute a good marriage. The age at which marriage may be contracted is eighteen for the man, and fifteen for the woman: but it requires the consent of parents or guardians for the son who has not attained the age of 25 years, and for the daughter under 21. Of the formalities relative to the celebration of marriage, the most remarkable feature is that the ceremony is performed and the union declared by the civil officer, without any mixture of spiritual interference. This is a very wide departure from the antient establishment; and we shall venture to predict that the prejudices of old times will restore the solemnity of this institution to the ecclesiastics. The puritanical government formerly established in this country, in its zeal to depart as far as possible from the ceremonies of the Romish church, by an ordinance passed in 1653 abolished the old marriage-service, took it out of the hands of the minister,

ster, and vested it in those of the Justice of peace; making him merely the witness to the mutual consent of the parties to the union, which was placed on the footing of a civil contract merely. It is probable, however, that the people themselves still adhered, from invincible custom, to the religious rites with which it had been usual to accompany this ceremony; because, in the year 1656 the ordinance of 1653 was modified by leaving out the clause which declared all marriages, that had been solemnized in any other manner than as therein directed, to be void.—The forms requisite to give validity to a marriage, by the French, are well calculated to prevent, even more carefully than our marriage-act, the evil of clandestine unions.—The obligations arising from marriage, and the rights and respective duties of husband and wife, occupy the rest of this title.

A subject which naturally follows the preceding, and forms the sixth title, is that of *Divorce.* While the matrimonial union was ranked among the sacraments of the church, it could not admit of dissolution except by the spiritual interference of the Holy See: but, in consequence of its change into a contract of a merely temporal nature, it may be rescinded by the civil authority. The causes of divorce are adultery; excess, cruelty, or grievous injuries; condemnation of one of the married parties to an infamous punishment; and, lastly, the mutual and persevering consent of the parties, expressed in the manner prescribed by law. The complaint must be laid before the judge of the tribunal; and, except for adultery or condemnation to infamous punishment, the divorce cannot be pronounced immediately, but the parties must undergo a year's probation, separated from each other's society: if, at the end of that time, they persist in their resolution, the tribunal is to pronounce the sentence. Divorce by mutual consent, without any of the foregoing causes assigned, cannot take place if the husband be under 25, or the wife under 21, nor before two years or after 20 years of marriage; nor unless authorized by their fathers or mothers, or other ascendants, whose consent is required for the marriage of parties under age.

Title 7th relates to the rights of *Paternity* and *Filiation*, and the eighth to *Adoption.*—These subjects, as well as those of Minority, Guardianship, and Emancipation, bear a great affinity to the rules of the civil law, from which many of them are borrowed. Such are the principal topics of the first book. The second, relating to things, is intitled of *Property*, and different modifications of ownership. The laws respecting the use and enjoyment of property, as they regard chiefly the particular modes of cultivation and tenure in France, do not afford any thing interesting to an English reader.

Book IIId and last is by much the most comprehensive. It comprizes the different ways in which ownership is acquired, including Succession, Testaments, Gifts, and, lastly, Contracts: but we shall spare our readers a repetition of what we have already noticed sufficiently in former articles.

The observation which strikes an English inquirer, on the perusal of this part of the Code, is that no distinction is made in the rules which regulate the transfer or possession of real and of personal property. This is agreeable to the plan of the Roman law, and forms the most fundamental difference between that and the feudal law. It is not the least remarkable feature in our jurisprudence, though the natural consequence of the mixed sources from which it springs, that not more diversity exists between the laws of different nations than between those of our own country, as they relate to the descriptions of property which we distinguish by the denominations of real and personal. The modes of ownership, possession, and transfer, the succession, rights, and incumbrances of each, are governed by maxims not only entirely dissimilar, but often directly opposite to each other. It is foreign from our present purpose to discuss the merits or disadvantages of such a system, or to examine whether it would occur to a legislator to devise an original system of jurisprudence after a similar plan: it certainly was, with respect to our laws, the effect of no such original design, but of accidental causes which, during the vigour of feudal institutions, made personal property of so little consequence as to be scarcely the object of legal regard. In the Roman law, the distinction between real and personal property, except in the term of prescription, is seldom discoverable; and the same principle of uniformity is adopted in the French Code, which recognizes no distinction in the legal qualities and incidents of the two kinds of property, except such as inseparably adhere to the nature of each.

We cannot dismiss this subject without noticing a topic which the present discussion naturally awakens. It is common to attribute the obscurity, delay, and expence of litigation in this country, to the multifariousness and variety of resolutions that constitute the law of the land; which require a library to be ransacked on every question, keep the bulk of the community in ignorance of their rights, and oblige them to commit their interests blindly to professional guides, who are seldom agreed, and almost always dubious. It is a notion eagerly entertained by many, that the formation of a code in digest would remove all this obscurity and uncertainty, render the knowlege of law simple and accessible, and annihilate litigation. We do not concur in the extent of these expectations, nor believe that the *Code Napoleon*,

poleon, or any other code, ever will produce such an effect as to answer the hopes of those who are persuaded that nothing more would be necessary on every question that could arise, than to open the reformed digest, and find a solution of all difficulties. The *Code Napoleon* is only a summary of principles: but the application of these to particular cases, which forms the law to which Judges must appeal, will gradually accumulate, till in process of time, and by the fluctuations of society, the attainment of legal knowlege will be as intricate and ambiguous as ever. The chicanery of mankind, and the infinite combinations of circumstances, will give rise to questions on the import and construction of the articles of the Code; and the precedents established by decisions of these questions will thenceforwards constitute a necessary comment on those articles for the guidance of future judgments. Let us observe what has happened with regard to certain portions of our own law. The acts known by the names of the Statute of Frauds and the Statute of Distributions may be deemed particular codes, as applicable to the subjects which they concern. The first of these was drawn up with the most attentive care by the most correct lawyer of his own or any other time, Sir M. Hale; yet it is well known to every professional man that the resolutions and authorities, according to which these acts are now interpreted, form a very voluminous collection.

It is, however, of no small moment to have a body of clear and well-digested principles to which we may resort; and we do not think that the most prejudiced judges of the fallen dynasty will deny that the merits of the *Code Napoleon* ought to protect from entire reprobation the name which it bears.

The first volume of the work before us consists of an elaborate introduction by the translator, which contains an account of the most remarkable of the antient systems of jurisprudence, viz. the Jewish Law, the Ordinances of Menu, the Ta Tsing Leu Lee, the Zend Avesta, the Laws of Solon, the Twelve Tables of Rome, the Laws of the Barbarians, the Assizes of Jerusalem, and the Koran. Mr. Barrett has collected a great portion of learning on these several subjects; and we are sorry that our present limits preclude us from that examination of the Introductory Discourse, which it might well merit as an independant production.

Art. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.* For the Year 1813. Parts. I. and II. 4to. 14s. and 18s. Nicol and Son.

Chemical and Physiological Papers. Part I.

On a new detonating Compound, in a Letter from Sir H. Davy, LL.D., F.R.S., to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., P.R.S.—During the autumn of 1812, Sir H. Davy received, from a correspondent in Paris, an account of a new detonating compound, of extraordinary violence, which had been discovered in that city; and which was said to be a mixture of chlorine and azote, and to assume the appearance of a heavy oil: but nothing was stated respecting the manner in which it was to be formed. The author immediately instituted a variety of processes for the purpose of procuring it; and he succeeded so far as to obtain an oily substance, which exploded violently on the application of heat, by exposing a quantity of chlorine to a saturated solution of the nitrate of ammonia. The explosion was so strong as to have produced a serious accident to the operator; and one motive, which induced Sir H. Davy to publish an account of the investigation in so early a stage of it, was, as he informs us, to put other chemists on their guard against its dangerous effects. The substance is described as resembling olive-oil in its colour and appearance, but having much greater specific gravity; its smell is nauseous, and it is extremely pungent. It acts with violence on both the expressed and the essential oils; ether and alcohol act on it more slowly; it is decomposed by phosphorus under water, converts mercury into corrosive sublimate, but has not much effect on tin, zinc, sulphur, or resin. The following observations exhibit the author's opinion of its nature, and the mode of its production; which, it is almost unnecessary to remark, proceeds on his new hypothesis respecting the composition of the muriatic and the oxymuriatic acids:

> 'It seems probable, from the general tenor of these facts, that the new substance is a compound of azote and chlorine; the same as, or analogous to, that mentioned in the letter from Paris. It is easy to explain its production in our experiments: the hydrogen of the ammonia may be conceived to combine with one portion of the chlorine to form muriatic acid, and the azote to unite with another portion of chlorine to form the new compound. The heat and light produced during its expansion into gaseous matter, supposing it to be composed of azote and chlorine, is without any parallel instance, in our present collection of chemical facts; the decomposition of euchlorine, which has been compared to it, is merely an expansion of matter already gaseous. The heat and light produced by its rarefaction, in consequence of decomposition, depend, probably, on the

same cause as that which produces the flash of light in the discharge of the air-gun.

'The mechanical force of this compound in detonation, seems to be superior to that of any other known, not even excepting the ammoniacal fulminating silver. The velocity of its action appears to be likewise greater.'

Observations relative to the near and distant Sight of different Persons. By James Ware, Esq., F.R.S. — It is here observed by this experienced and respectable practitioner, that the state of the eyes which produces short-sightedness seldom exists at birth, but generally comes on between the ages of 10 and 18, when it is at first noticed accidentally. In the lower ranks of life, in which persons are usually engaged in such occupations as lead them to exercise their eyes on distant objects, short-sightedness is a rare occurrence; and when it does take place, as they seldom have recourse to the use of glasses, it is probably overcome by the increased exertion which the eyes make to enable them to view objects that are remote. The higher ranks, however, immediately apply to the convex lens, and frequently to one of a higher power than is necessary to correct the defect; so that the state of the eye becomes confirmed, or even increased. The subsequent observations seem to prove the truth of the author's conclusions:

'With regard to the proportion between the number of near-sighted persons in the different ranks of society, I have taken pains to obtain satisfactory information, by making inquiry in those places where a large number in these several classes are associated together. I have inquired, for instance, of the surgeons of the three regiments of foot guards, which consist of nearly ten thousand men; and the result has been, that near-sightedness, among the privates, is almost utterly unknown. Not half a dozen men have been discharged, nor half a dozen recruits rejected, on account of this imperfection, in the space of nearly twenty years: and yet many parts of a soldier's duty require him to have a tolerably correct view of distant objects; as of the movements of the fugleman in exercise, and of the bull's eye when shooting at the target; the want of which might furnish a plausible apology for a skulker to skreen himself from duty, or to get his discharge from the service. I pursued my inquiries at the military school at Chelsea, where there are thirteen hundred children, and I found that the complaint of near-sightedness had never been made among them until I mentioned it; and there were then only three who experienced the least inconvenience from it. After this, I inquired at several of the colleges in Oxford and Cambridge; and, though there is a great diversity in the number of students who make use of glasses in the various colleges, they are used by a considerable proportion of the whole number in both Universities; and, in one college in Oxford, I have a list of the names of not less than thirty-two out of one hundred and twenty-seven, who wore either a hand glass or spectacles, between the years 1803 and 1807.'

The practical inference from these facts is sufficiently obvious and important; and Mr. Ware particularly remarks that it is very desirable for those who feel it necessary to employ a concave lens, to use a number a little lower than that which gives them the most distinct vision; since this will answer nearly as well for all the common purposes of life, and will tend rather to diminish than to increase the defect. — Instances are mentioned in which short-sightedness took place in infancy, or in early childhood, and sometimes this is evidently the effect of disease; and a case is reported in which the eye was suddenly rendered near-sighted from some morbid affection of the brain, which terminated in the death of the patient. The degree of near-sightedness is seldom exactly the same in both eyes. Mr. Ware does not think that the pupils of near-sighted persons are more dilated than those of others.

Dr. Wells, in a late paper in the Philosophical Transactions, related some experiments on the effect which the permanent dilatation of the pupil, arising from the application of the extract of belladonna, produced in preventing the distinct view of near objects. Mr. Ware has repeated the experiment with the same result. In a case which he examined, the nearest point of distinct vision was removed from 4 to 7 inches; while the farther point, at which a small object could be distinctly seen, was also removed from 31 to 34 inches. The same alteration in the limits of distinct vision is generally effected in the eyes of those who are near-sighted, by the permanent dilatation of the pupil: but, in some few instances, the opposite result takes place. It is known that the change in the state of the eyes, as life advances, consists in a loss of the power of seeing near objects correctly, while such as are remote are still seen distinctly: but sometimes the power of viewing both near and remote objects is equally lost; and, as the same lens corrects both defects, it shews that the eye retains its usual power of adjusting itself to different distances. In this respect, it is said to differ from the eye which has lost its crystalline humor, to which a different lens is necessary for viewing near and discerning remote objects. Mr. Ware, who is himself near-sighted, remarks that such persons have generally a less extensive range of vision than those who have a distant sight; and, contrary to the common opinion, he conceives that their eyes are disposed to become more near-sighted as life advances.

Some of the more important points, which Mr. Ware attempts to establish in this valuable paper, are comprized in the ensuing positions, with which it concludes:

'First; near-sightedness is rarely observed in infants, or even in children under ten years of age. It affects the higher classes of society more than the lower: and the instances are few, if any, in which, if the use of concave glasses has been adopted, increasing years have either removed or lessened this imperfection.

'Secondly; though the usual effect of time on perfect eyes be that of inducing a necessity to make use of convex glasses, in order to see near objects distinctly, yet sometimes, even after the age of fifty, and after convex glasses have been used many years for this purpose, the eyes have not only ceased to derive benefit from them, when looking at near objects, but they have required concave glasses to enable them to distinguish, with precision, objects at a distance.

'Thirdly; though the cause of this change be not always known, yet sometimes it has been induced by the use of evacuating remedies, particularly of leaches applied to the temples; and sometimes by looking through a microscope, for a continued length of time, in several successive days.

'Fourthly; instances are not uncommon, in which persons, far advanced in life, (viz. between eighty and ninety,) whose eyes have been accustomed for a long time to the use of deeply convex glasses, when they have read or written, have ceased to derive benefit from these glasses, and they have become able, without any assistance, to see both near and distant objects almost as well as when they were young. Although it be not easy to ascertain the cause of this amended vision, it seems not improbable that it is occasioned by an absorption of part of the vitreous humour; in consequence of which the sides of the eye collapse, and its axis, from the cornea to the retina, is lengthened; by which alteration the length of this axis is brought into the same proportion to the flattened state of the cornea or crystalline, or both, which it had to these parts before the alteration took place.'

The Bakerian Lecture. On the Elementary Particles of certain Crystals. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D., Sec. R.S. — It has always been considered as a question difficult of solution, to what primitive form the regular crystallized octohedron ought to be referred; because, though the tetrahedron might seem to be its most natural origin, as being most readily converted into an octohedron, yet it is in fact not the tetrahedron which we procure in our experiments. If fluor spar be employed, it is separated into rhomboids; and each of these rhomboids may again be divided into one octohedron and two tetrahedrons. It is therefore not easy to determine which of these figures should be regarded as primitive; and, since neither tetrahedrons nor octohedrons can occupy space without leaving vacuities, to shew how these figures can form the basis of a permanent crystal. To remove these difficulties, Dr. Wollaston was led to form an hypothesis, which appears to be both ingenious and satisfactory. 'With respect to fluor spar, (he says,) and such other substances as assume the octohedral and tetrahedral forms, all difficulty is removed by supposing the elementary particles to be perfect spheres, which by mutual attraction have assumed that arrangement

ment which brings them as near to each other as possible.' He then proceeds to illustrate his new doctrine, by shewing what figures would be produced by the different combinations of spheres, from the equilateral triangle to the regular tetrahedron or the regular octohedron. If we suppose the particles, instead of being regular spheres, to be flattened, we have a rhomboid; and, by conceiving them to be rendered oblong instead of oblate, we may compose an hexagonal prism. — Dr. W. informs us that an hypothesis, similar to his own, respecting the spherical shape of the particles of crystals, was suggested by Dr. Hooke, but appears to have been entirely neglected.

On a Substance from the Elm Tree, called Ulmin. By James Smithson, Esq., F.R.S. — A peculiar exudation flows from the Elm-tree, which was originally examined by Klaproth, and to which Dr. Thomson applied the name of ulmin, supposing it to be a distinct vegetable principle. Mr. Smithson, however, made some new experiments on it, and concludes that it is not a simple vegetable substance, but that it consists of a combination of potash and a matter which is analogous to the extracts. He calculates that ulmin contains from 15 to 20 per cent. of potash.

On a Method of Freezing, at a Distance. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D., Sec. R.S. — It is well known that, when a portion of a fluid is evaporated, the remainder becomes colder in consequence of the obstruction of heat by the vapor; and also that fluids rise in vapor at a lower temperature *in vacuo* than in the open air. Water may be frozen by means of the vacuum of an air-pump, but it is necessary that the pump be in the best condition, that the receiver be large, and the quantity of water very small. Our philosophical readers no doubt are aware that Professor Leslie has discovered a very ingenious method of expediting the freezing of water in a vacuum, by employing sulphuric acid; which, in consequence of its attraction for water, absorbs the vapor as fast as it is formed, and thus preserves the vacuum in its perfect state. Dr. Wollaston's mode is more simple, and requires a less expensive apparatus. It consists of a tube, with a ball at each end, bent at right angles; one of the balls is to contain a little water; and the remainder of the space is to be as perfect a vacuum as can be obtained. Its operation is thus described:

> 'When an instrument of this description has been successfully exhausted, if the ball that is empty be immersed in a freezing mixture of salt and snow, the water in the other ball, though at the distance of two or three feet, will be frozen solid in the course of a very few minutes. The vapour contained in the empty ball is condensed by the common operation of cold, and the vacuum produced by

this condensation gives opportunity for a fresh quantity to arise from the opposite ball, with proportional reduction of its temperature.

'According to a theory that does not admit of positive cold, we should represent the heat of the warmer ball to be the agent in this experiment, generating steam as long as there remains any excess of heat to be conveyed. But if we would express the cause of its abstraction, we must say that the cold mixture is the agent, and may observe, in this instance, that its power of freezing is transferred to a distance, by what may be called the negative operation of steam.

'The instrument, by which this is effected, may aptly be called a Cryophorus, which correctly expresses its office of frost-bearer.'

A Description of the Solvent Glands and Gizzards of the Ardea Argala, the Casuarius Emu, and the long-legged Casowary from New South Wales. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart., F.R.S. — Pursuing his inquiries into the comparative structure of the digestive organs of the different species of carnivorous birds, Sir Everard Home here describes those of the *Ardea Argala*, a native of Bengal, of the Casowary of Java, and of the long-legged Casowary of New South Wales. The solvent glands of the *Ardea* consist of 5 or 6 cells, which open into one common duct, disposed in two circular masses, one on the anterior and the other on the posterior surface of the cardiac cavity; something in the manner of those of the Cormorant. The gizzard is like that of the Crow. The Casuarius Emu, which inhabits Java, has solvent glands in the form of oval bags, occupying the whole surface of the cardiac cavity. Its gizzard, as to strength, resembles that of the Crow: but it is peculiarly situated, being out of the course of the cardiac cavity, so that the food, in passing along the intestines, does not necessarily go through it. In the Casowary from New South Wales, the glands are very similar to those of the former bird; the gizzard is stronger, but resembles it in other respects.

The paper concludes with some interesting observations on the comparative anatomy of the digestive organs of birds which are generally similar as to size, food, and habits, but which are placed in countries that differ with respect to the facility of acquiring food. The Casowary of Java, living in a most luxuriant region, has its solvent glands small, the gizzard so situated as to be used only occasionally, and the intestines short. The Casowary of New South Wales, inhabiting a less fertile country, has its glands rather larger, and its gizzard stronger, and placed in the same situation: but the intestines are double the length. The *Rhea Americana*, living in a part of South America in which food is not plentiful, has large glands and a strong gizzard, through which all the food must pass; and the intestines are of still greater length. The *Struthio Camelus* of the desarts of Africa has more numerous glands, a stronger gizzard, and a much longer intestinal canal.

Additional Remarks on the State in which Alcohol exists in fermented Liquors. By W. T. Brande, Esq., F.R.S.—In a former communication, the author had endeavoured to prove that the alcohol, which is obtained by distillation from fermented liquors, is an *educt*, and not a *product* of the operation. He has since found means still farther to substantiate his opinion, by procuring alcohol from wine without the intervention of heat; and in a quantity equal to that which would have been produced by distillation. The subacetate of lead possesses the property of precipitating from wine all its acid, and its coloring matter; leaving in the fluid only water, alcohol, and a portion of the acid of the metallic salt. The alcohol may then be separated by potash, and its quantity easily ascertained. This process was tried on port wine, and compared with the result of distillation; when the amount of alcohol was found in both cases to be very nearly the same. Similar experiments were repeated on madeira, sherry, claret, and *vin de grave*, with equally decisive results: so that the author conceives it to be 'amply proved, by experimental evidence, that no alcohol is *formed* during the distillation of wines, and that the whole quantity found, after distillation, pre-existed in the fermented liquor.'

On a new Variety in the Breeds of Sheep. By Col. D. Humphreys, F.R.S. — This paper gives an account of a new and permanent variety in the sheep, which was produced, without any assignable cause, on a farm a few miles from Boston in North America. It acquired the popular name of the Otter-breed, from the shortness of its legs and the length of its back; and it received the more appropriate title of Ancon-sheep, from the projection of its joints, which assume the appearance of elbows. The shortness of the legs, and a degree of weakness or imperfection in the articulations, seem to be the most characteristic marks of this variety: the sheep are hence rendered less active, and less able to leap over fences, a circumstance which appeared likely to prove of some advantage in a country without good hedges, and where the keeping of sheep is not an object of much attention. This recommendation, however, it may be presumed, has not been found to answer the expectations of the breeders, since we learn that this variety of sheep is now become very rare.

Experiments to ascertain the Coagulating Power of the Secretion of the Gastric Glands. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart., F.R.S. — The following are the most important experiments related in this paper. A comparison was made between the coagulating power of the cardiac portion of a chicken's stomach, and the horny lining of the gizzard, by adding milk to an infusion of these parts; coagulation took place in both of them, but the infusion of the gizzard produced the firmest curd. The cardiac portion of the stomachs of a hawk and of a fowl were then compared; when that of the hawk was found to be the most powerful. Infusions of the gastric glands of the turkey, of common rennet, of the lining of the cardiac portion of the turkey's stomach, and of the recent calf's stomach, were also compared. The rennet acted the most readily; the gastric glands and the recent calf's stomach were less powerful, and in about the same degree; while the cardiac cavity produced the least effect. The author draws the following conclusions from his experiments:

> 'It is clear that the secretion of the gastric glands possesses the power of coagulating milk, and gives that power to all the parts by which it is imbibed, whether composed of living parts or not, since the horny lining of the gizzard, the mucus in the stomach, and the inner membrane of that cavity, appear equally to have acquired it.
>
> 'This coagulation appears to be the first change the food undergoes in the process of digestion, and where the digestion is rapid, the coagulated parts are very quickly dissolved.'

On some Properties of Light. By David Brewster, LL.D., F.R.S. Ed. — In the course of some experiments which Dr. Brewster has been lately performing on the transmission of light through diaphanous bodies, he was led to inquire whether a property could be given to *transmitted*, similar to that which was observed by Malus with respect to *reflected* light. In this object he was unsuccessful: but, while he was employing a thin plate of agate, on each side of the luminous object seen through it, he observed that a highly coloured image was produced, forming with the object an angle of several degrees. This coloured image was found to possess the same property with the image through a double reflecting crystal; and by viewing it through a prism of Iceland spar, and turning the prism on its axis, the images alternately vanished at every quadrant of their circular motion. Besides this coloured image, a faint nebulous light also accompanies it, lying in a direction parallel to the laminæ of the agate. The power is said to be also possessed by the cornelian and chalcedony.

Dr. Brewster offers some ingenious conjectures on the doubly refractive power of certain substances; which he conceives may depend on 'an alternation of laminæ of two separate refractive and dispersive powers.' It has been supposed, since the time of Newton, that the refractive power of the diamond was greater than that of any other body: but Dr. B. has found the chromate of lead and realgar to be superior in this respect.

An Appendix to Mr. Ware's Paper on Vision. By Sir C. Blagden, F.R.S. —Sir C. Blagden's principal object is to confirm the facts that are stated in Mr. Ware's paper, of which an account is given in p. 70. He agrees with Mr. W. in the opinion that near-sightedness is often caused at an early age; that it is more frequent in the higher ranks; and that a large proportion of the students at the universities make use of concave glasses. These effects, he conceives, are owing to the habit of looking at near objects.

> 'Children born with eyes which are capable of adjusting themselves to the most distant objects, gradually lose that power soon after they begin to read and write; those who are most addicted to study become near sighted more rapidly; and if no means are used to counteract the habit, their eyes at length lose irrecoverably the faculty of being brought to the adjustment for parallel rays.'

All these points he confirms by a reference to the change which has taken place in his own eyes.

A Method of drawing extremely fine Wires. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D., Sec. R.S. —Musschenbroek mentions an artist of Augsburg, who was able to draw a gold-wire so fine, that 500 feet of it weighed only one grain. This account has been doubted, but Dr. Wollaston points out a method by which a still finer wire may be formed. We quote the paragraph in which he describes the process:

> 'Those who draw silver wire in large quantities for lace and embroidery, sometimes begin with a rod that is about three inches in diameter, and ultimately obtain wires that are as small as $\frac{1}{300}$ of an inch in thickness. If in any stage of this process a rod of silver wire be taken, and a hole be drilled through it longitudinally, having its diameter one-tenth part of that of the rod, and if a wire of pure gold be inserted, so as to fill the hole, it is evident that by continuing to draw the rod, the gold within it will be reduced in diameter exactly in the same proportion as the silver; so that if both be thus drawn out together till the diameter of the silver is $\frac{1}{300}$ of an inch, then that of the gold will be only $\frac{1}{3000}$; and of such wire five hundred and fifty feet would be requisite to weigh one grain.'

The wire thus drawn is then to be immersed in nitrous acid, which will dissolve the silver coating without injuring the gold.

To obtain a very fine platina-wire, a different method was employed:

> 'Having formed a cylindrical mould $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch in diameter, I fixed in the centre of it a platina wire previously drawn to the $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch, and then filled the mould with silver. When this rod was drawn to $\frac{1}{30}$, my platina was reduced to $\frac{1}{1000}$, and by successive reduction I obtained wires of $\frac{1}{4000}$ and $\frac{1}{5000}$, each excellent for ap-

plying to the eye-pieces of astronomical instruments, and perhaps a fine as can be useful for such purposes. *'

The tenuity of these minute platina-wires was found to be greater than we might have expected; and the author suggests the possibility of their being applicable to some useful purposes, with directions for their management.

On the Tusks of the Narwhale. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart., F.R.S. — Some circumstances having led to the belief that the female narwhale was entirely without tusks, and that the male had only one, Sir Everard was induced to examine a number of skulls, and to seek for information from different quarters; from which he concludes that the male has two tusks, but 'that the left tusk appears commonly long before the right one;' and that the female has likewise two tusks, but that they are late in making their appearance. It is very rarely that a female has been taken of sufficient age to possess two perfect tusks. The author remarks that this discovery will render it necessary to alter the specific name given by Linné, to this animal, which was derived from the idea of its having only one tusk.

MATHEMATICS and MECHANICS.

On a remarkable Application of Cotes's Theorem. By J. F. W. Herschel, Esq. — This memoir contains several remarkable properties of the conic sections; or rather, as the author observes, properties of their equations, in particular cases, for disjointed points, determined according to a certain law, and not of consecutive points constituting an entire line. When geometrically enunciated, therefore, they become complicated and unintelligible: but, when considered analytically, they assume a more simple form, and are not uninteresting. The theorems will not, however, admit of illustration without entering on the subject at greater length than is consistent with our plan.

Description of a Single-lens Micrometer. By William Hyde Wollaston, M.D., Sec. R S. — Having had occasion to measure some very small wires, with a greater degree of accuracy than he was enabled to obtain with any instrument in present use, Dr. Wollaston was induced to consider other means of accomplishing his object, and was thus led to the construction of the simple instrument described in the present memoir. It consists of a single lens, of about $\frac{1}{11}$ of an inch focal length; which, being necessarily very small, admits, when mounted

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' * No very accurate observations can be made with a telescope shorter than thirty inches, and at that distance $\frac{1}{7000}$ of an inch subtends only one second of a degree.'

in a brass plate, of a small perforation being made by the side of it, of about $\frac{1}{11}$ of an inch: so that the eye may view the object proposed for examination, and at the same time see distant objects through the adjacent perforation, by which the apparent magnitude of the image may be compared with a scale of inches, feet, or yards, according to the distance at which it might be convenient to place it. Dr. Wollaston, however, makes use of a scale of smaller dimensions attached to the instrument: with which he conceives that he can estimate the real magnitude much more accurately than by any other means. If, for instance, the object measured be really $\frac{1}{5100}$, it may appear by the instrument to be $\frac{1}{5000}$ or $\frac{1}{5200}$; in which case, the doubt amounts to $\frac{1}{50}$th part of the whole: whereas, in the usual construction, an instrument professing to measure to the same extent, or to $\frac{1}{10000}$ of an inch, cannot distinguish between $\frac{1}{10000}$ and $\frac{2}{10000}$; because, though the eye may be able to perceive 'that the truth lies between the two, it receives no assistance within $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the larger measure.'

Some papers by the Astronomer Royal, in each portion of this volume, will be considered with the other contents of Part II. in our next Number.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IX. *The Year*, a Poem. By John Bidlake, D.D., of Christchurch, Oxford, Chaplain to their Royal Highnesses the Prince Regent and the Duke of Clarence. 8vo. pp. 236. 10s. 6d. Boards. Rees. 1813.

How happy is it when persons who are afflicted with blindness can amuse themselves; and happier still should they find that they can also amuse others! Men of genius and improvement enjoy this enviable privilege, that, when "knowlege at one entrance is quite shut out," they can, nevertheless, "sit in *darkness*, and enjoy bright day;" and to them the horizon of intellect appears luminous and resplendent. Dr. Bidlake may be said to have belonged to this distinguished class. Though deprived of bodily sight, to the orb of his mind the beauties of the creation still presented themselves with their accustomed charms; and his poetic landscapes shew that he had minutely noticed and powerfully felt each varying aspect of the changeful seasons.

Scarcely, however, had he proved to the world, by the publication of this poem, that he could thus pleasingly and laudably contend against the privation to which he had been doomed, when we learned that a sentence had been passed on him against

which he had no appeal nor resource, and that his mental
well as corporeal eye was for ever closed in this life! —He
long been known to the literary world; and the termination
his career has been remarkable, both for the rapid succession
a severe affliction and of the last sad scene, and for the cho
which he happened to make for the concluding effort of
mind: —that, unknowingly on the verge of eternity, he sho
chance to select for the subject of his poetical contemplati
the natural features of our "little year."

By such a choice, the Doctor has unavoidably reminded
of Thomson: but his descriptions are less majestic and glo
ing; and his verse is more in the easy manner of Cowper,
"The Task;" while his reflections occasionally wear the ti
of that mournful monitor Young. To Milton, also, he is n
and then indebted for a phrase. — We are informed, in a sh
advertisement, that 'the scenery in the beautiful neighbourho
of Plymouth suggested the principal part of the rural landsca
which occurs in the course of the work, and that the obser
tions are principally confined to the climate and local peculia
ties of Devonshire.' To each month, a distinct book
assigned; and, as the poet proceeds from January to Decemb
every vicissitude of the year, as indicated by the state of
atmosphere, the appearance of the earth, the productions of
vegetable world, the labours and diversions of man, and the
stincts of animals, is minutely recorded. As appropriate to
present moment, we shall first copy a part of his sketch of
most beautiful and most welcome of all months:

'MAY.

'Now breathes ethereal softness, while the sun
Rejoices in his course. All teems with bliss.
At length the loth and slow bleak winter bids
His boisterous and reluctant troop withdraw;
The black-wing'd storm, the icy-fingered frost,
With hoary head and petrifying breath,
The ruffian whirlwind that delights in waste
And ruin wild. Yet these returning oft,
Shed chilling terrors on the timid spring.

'Hail! lovely month! on whose fair train await
The tender blushing dawn and milder day.
Printless thy step! And oh! thy breath how sweet!
Sweet too the beam of thy cerulean eye,
When o'er the smiling meads, or through the woods
That echo choral harmony, thou walk'st
Beneath the opening lids of placid morn,
Wak'd by the odour of the spicy gale.

'And thou too, hail! Spirit of vital heat,
That shedd'st warm melting softness in the breeze.

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Thou cherisher of nature, nay, her soul;
First bounteous parent of all earthly good;
Thy ripening influence beneath, all germs
Of vast creation burst to happy birth!

'And thou, spirit of life, of rosy cheek,
Whose magic breath imparts a purer glow,
And purer health, to the enlivening tide,
That from the heart pursues its wondrous course:
Hail, humid power! whose silver tresses drop
Perpetual dews adown th' ethereal waste.
And thou, electric force! whose rapid wing
Mocks the more tardy flight of vanquish'd time;
Whose strength the mountain top, resistless, rends!
These active all, o'er sluggish matter rule,
In all extended space, in fluids sport,
Live in all life, and in all motion move.

'With custom'd rites, deriv'd from ancient Rome,
The joyful village hail the new-born month:
The peep of dawn calls rustic lovers forth
To brush the early dew from the full grass,
And pluck the milk-white thorn, fragrant of May,
And starr'd with glittering drops. Fresh garlands breathe
Their mingled sweets, and glow with varied pride;
While round the pole at eve the rural throng
Weave the light buxom dance, or boisterous sport,
While artificial splendour gilds the bush,
And night grows glad with unaccustomed smiles.'

If the blank-verse of Dr. B. rarely soars to sublimity, it is in general flowing, and is thickly strewed with instructive hints on the subject of natural history. An enumeration of the different habits of birds in building their nests occurs at p. 52. *et seq.* We insert the account of the land-birds.

'A thousand bills are busy now; the skies
Are winnow'd by a thousand fluttering wings,
While all the feathered race their annual rites
Ardent begin, and chuse where best to build
With more than human skill; some cautious seek
Sequester'd spots, while some more confident
Scarce ask a covert. Wiser these, elude
The foes that prey upon their several kinds;
Those to the hedge repair with velvet down
Of budding sallows, beautifully white.
The cavern-loving wren sequestered seeks
The verdant shelter of the hollow stump,
And with congenial moss, harmless deceit,
Constructs a safe abode. On topmost boughs
The glossy raven,' and the hoarse-voic'd crow,
Rocked by the storm, erect their airy nests.

The ousel, lone frequenter of the grove
Of fragrant pines, in solemn depth of shade
Finds rest; or 'mid the holly's shining leaves,
A simple bush the piping thrush contents,
Though in the woodland concert he aloft
Trills from his spotted throat a powerful strain,
And scorns the humbler choir. The lark too asks
A lowly dwelling, hid beneath a turf,
Or hollow trodden by the sinking hoof;
Songster of heaven! who to the sun such lays
Pours forth, as earth ne'er owns. Within the hedge
The sparrow lays her sky-stain'd eggs. The barn,
With eaves o'er pendant holds the chattering tribe:
Secret the linnet seeks the tangled copse:
Where some tall beetling rock, midway in air
Lifts his bold brow, the sailing kite; the hawk,
In spotted terrors drest, and pallid face,
And eye death-glaring, rear their savage brood:
Bleak on the pinnacle of mountains rough,
And cloud-embrac'd, the towering eagle plans
Dismay; or 'mid Northumbria's shining lakes,
Or Snowdon's crags, or Orkney's distant isles;
Thus rais'd to fatal eminence and dread,
Some tyrant dooms the nations for his prey,
And pleas'd with ruin desolates the earth:
The white owl seeks some antique ruin'd wall,
Fearless of rapine; or in hollow trees
Which age has caverned, safely courts repose:
The thievish pye in two-fold colours clad,
Roofs o'er her curious nest with firm-wreath'd twigs,
And sidelong forms her cautious door; she dreads
The talon'd kite, or pouncing hawk; savage
Herself; with craft, suspicion ever dwells.'

After a general description of the spring-month of April, short invocation to Light is introduced: but, though it begi like that of Milton, it is not throughout Miltonic:

' *Hail, holy Light!* image of truth divine!
Whose glorious rays invest the throne of God!
Hail, fruitful joy of all created things!
Cloth'd in thy radiant robe, this rolling orb
Exults, that were without thy cheering smile
A dreary blank, a dull and sullen waste.
Bright as celestial love, and still as warm,
Thy gracious beam diffuses joy on all
That breathes the vital air, on all that spreads
In vegetating beauty; and on all
That fertilizing flows; on all that teems
With plenty, and on all that germs with life.'

So minute is Dr. B. in his account of the flowers which blow in every month, that his pages will appear almost to form a Gardener's Calendar. Indeed, his merit consists here more in the accuracy of his report than in the charms of his verse; and the florist will feel himself more obliged than the man of refined taste:

'To gardens trim the noon-tide now invites;
And cheering warmth, and bowers, and alleys green;
And spruce auricula, the Florist's pride,
In mealy order rang'd. Loquacious he
Each name recounts in lengthened tale, and boasts
Of beauties rare, alone by him possess'd;
The jonquil loads with potent breath the air,
And rich in golden glory nods; there too,
Child of the wind, anemoné delights,
Or in its scarlet robe or various dies,
Ranunculus, reflecting every ray;
The polyanthus, and with pendent head
The crown imperial, ever bent on earth,
Favoring her secret rites and pearly sweets.
Here grateful labour chides reluctant sloth,
Here leisure tastes the first man's quiet bliss;
While the rapt sage a level walk may meet;
Or seated here, th' historic page retrace,
Or philosophic meditation muse.
See, every teeming branch empurpled swells
In verdant hope. The reddening wall distends
With crimson birth. The peach, the nectarine blush,
All neatly spread. The pear-tree nods, one mass
Of vernal white, and with the cherry vies.—
Warm'd by the genial force of ardent spring,
All burst to life. No longer torpid, mounts
The vegetable juice. The petals ope,
Though on the little loves that sport within
Their silken folds, the rough and envious blasts
Too oft, relentless frown; while April mourns
Her modest cheek impress'd by the rude kiss
Of savage winds, and all her charms deform'd;
The ever-veering gales inconstant change;
And waft the chill sleet o'er the frigid sky.'

Flora's uncultivated offspring, scattered over Danmonian wilds, are also duly sung, and Pomona's gifts are not forgotten. When the warmth of summer brings forth the insect-tribes, these also buzz and display their painted wings in verse. In short, if Dr. B. could not boast of being a *first* favorite with the Muses, he might pride himself on having been an attentive observer, and, for the most part, a faithful delineator of Nature. He should indeed have contrived, as Thomson has done, to relieve the monotony of rural descriptions, repeated month after month, by some amusing episodes. If, however, we have no affect tales, we find many useful moral admonitions; and the wh concludes with the following reflections:

' ON THE LAST DAY OF THE YEAR.

' The various year is closed, and every scene,
Now vanished, floats in memory's dreams alone.
Mere unsubstantial forms! shadows of shade!
Where are the circling months? the joyous days?
The rapturous hours? the golden moments, where?
All fled! and fled to bloom, alas, no more!
To-morrow's dawn shall light another train
Of airy glories on their fleeting way:
This the last night. Last night! ah, awful sound!
Dread awful word;—the *last*. Like death it chills,
And palsies every tongue that sounds its name.
Sad sound! how sad to him, whose trembling hand
Counts the slow lingering pulse of dying friend,
Or sees light setting in a parent's eye!
How sad to her, who with distracting kiss
Catches the parting sigh, ere yet it quit
A suffering infant's darling form, the flower,
The opening flower of pure and hallowed love!
How sad to him, who takes a final leave
Upon the bed of death, of her, whom late
He clasped with ardent hope, a blooming bride!
And oh! heart-rending sound, the last, last year
When lovers part, each still to leave behind
The better half of severed souls, while far
The convex world's immeasurable seas
And high ridg'd mountains, each fond wish divide;
And oh! how dreadful sounds the sad last hour
Of fleeting breath to him, who in the womb
Of prison darkness, long condemned to die,
Hears the hoarse bell, with awful summons, call
His fainting soul to vast eternity!
But far more awful is that dreadful day,
The last, last day of judgment; when the race
Of trembling mortals all shall stand before
The throne of justice and avenging power,
And peopled graves shall pour their countless throngs,
Countless as atoms, to the dreadful test,—
And seas their dead, as numerous as their sands.'

The volume is dedicated to Dr. Hughes, Canon Residenti of St. Paul's: but, as each book is distinctly inscribed to s particular friend, it is difficult to ascertain what portion of work is included in the dedication to Dr. Hughes. Nothin left for him besides the title-page, and a few notes *ad calce*

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Art. X. *The Planter's Kalendar;* or the Nurseryman's and Forester's Guide, in the Operations of the Nursery, the Forest, and the Grove. By the late Walter Nicol, Author of the Gardener's Kalendar, &c. Edited and completed by Edward Sang, Nurseryman, at Kirkcaldy. 8vo. pp. 600. 15s. Boards. Constable, Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London.

To an island like Great Britain, of which the protection and prosperity must depend on the extent of its marine, the growth of timber is a prime consideration, and ought to be regarded as a very important branch of agriculture. It should not, therefore, be taken for granted, as it seems to be at present, that all our wastes should be appropriated to the formation of corn-fields and meadows. Experience has taught us that the system of inclosing has added in no sensible degree to our quantity of bread-corn, and the public have not benefited, as they expected, from the greediness of appropriation: since the means of improving waste-lands are not increased by the mere inclosure of them; and the farmer, who has only a certain quantity of manure at command, obtains as much grain from a hundred acres kept in good heart, as from double the quantity that is only half cultivated. It is beyond a doubt that large portions of many wastes, which have been turned up with the plough, and sown, would have been more judiciously treated if they had been dibbled with acorns; and, had the necessities of the empire been duly regarded, every bill for inclosing waste-lands of a certain extent should have contained a clause for the appropriation of a given number of acres to forest-plantation.

Mr. Sang, the editor, or more properly the author of this work, for he appears to have re-written the whole, very justly remarks in the introduction that 'the great attention paid to agricultural improvements has likewise proved very favourable to the increase of planting; it having been clearly perceived, that, by subdividing extended tracts of country, by means of screen-plantations, (generally denominated *stripes* or *belts*,) and by trees in masses of various shapes and dimensions, the interests of husbandry must be very much promoted by the protection thus afforded to the corn-lands; and when the rearing of stock became a matter of the utmost importance, the sheltering of their pastures could not be overlooked.'

By this view of the subject, it is proved that, in certain bleak situations, the interest of the agriculturist requires him to plant; and we would also invite his attention to the fact that he often mistakes this interest when he grubs up coppices and wood-lands for the purpose of making them arable. The late Lord Melville, in his letter to Mr. Percival, (a long extract from which is given by Mr. Sang,) mentions two points of prime consideration:

"The

"The first is, to take the most effectual measures to husband and preserve, for the use of the Royal Navy, as much of the timber now remaining in the kingdom as you possibly can. The second is, to begin, without delay, to provide, *within the kingdom*, the means of supplying the future wants of theNavy, when the timber now growing shall be exhausted." Lord Glenbervie, the present surveyor of His Majesty's Woods and Forests, appears to have been acting on this latter suggestion, if we may judge by the numerous inclosures which he has made and is making in the Royal Forests: but, while we applaud the patriotic measures which he is pursuing on a large scale, we venture to ask him whether his object could not be accomplished by a less expensive mode of inclosure; and whether he does not sacrifice too many forest-trees for the purpose of making tall wooden fences, when his infant-woods might be secured by high embankments surmounted by slight *chevaux de frize* fences, and planted internally with white thorn or quick? It is wise to prepare embryo-forests; it is wise also not to fell more growing timber than is absolutely necessary for their protection.

Mr. Sang is of opinion that the present quantity of growing timber in England may in *fifty years' time* be equal to all our wants, excepting for the purposes of *large ship-building.* Of this last description of timber, the quantity is rapidly diminishing; of which a stronger proof cannot be adduced than the hint which the late Lord Melville gave to Government on the value of the teak-wood in India, and on the propriety of building ships of war from that wood in that country.

So far we have been induced to advert to the subject of planting in a national view: but we must now descend to a more humble consideration of the matter, and glance at details of practice in the raising, &c. of trees, whether in a less or greater number. Mr. Sang is a professed nurseryman, residing at Kirkcaldy in Scotland; and, though he has made all possible use of the notes or *memoranda* of Mr. Nicol, who had performed extensive tours in England, it may be presumed that the practice often recommended by him is rather calculated for the northern climate in which he lives than for the more southern counties: yet it is proper to insert the remark which is offered by him to obviate this objection; viz. 'I have constantly kept in view the possibility of the book being consulted by English or Irish planters or improvers; and I flatter myself that, if it be they will have no cause to repent.' As far as general directions are concerned, they probably will not: but Mr. Sang is not well versed in southern provincial terms, and cannot detail the varieties which depend on climate. We smiled at the fear which he expresses on the score of having too freely revealed the secrets of the nursery-business, lest, peradventure, his brethren should be offended at his having drawn back the curtain from before the mystery of planting; and particularly for having recommended to gentlemen the formation of *private* nurseries. He needs not alarm himself on this head, since he has been anticipated by all the *landscape-gardeners* and *creators of the picturesque.* When it is in contemplation to overshadow extensive tracts with forests, it would not answer in any point of view to have recourse to the professional nurseryman. To gentlemen, moreover, who reside during a great part of the year on estates which are at a distance from a populous neighbourhood, the sending for plants to a public nursery is very inconvenient; so that the steward, or head-gardener, generally advises a nursery to be made in some private spot which can be well spared for the purpose; to which recourse can be had whenever the land-owner himself, or the person to whom he intrusts the management of his grounds, is bent on playing the part of the landscape-gardener.—In the section on the situations and soils for a nursery, some profitable advice is offered; and the following suggestion merits the regard of those gentlemen who are providing for future plantations:

'For a nursery in the above view, no place, certainly, can be more eligible, than a field which may also be occupied as a kitchen-garden. If, for instance, three acres were required for the purposes of *nursery*, and one or two acres were also required for extra kitchen-ground, or for green crops for cattle-feeding, it would be proper to enclose five or six acres, less or more, according to circumstances; by which means, two important objects might be attained; viz. land of a good quality, and fine tilth, for the raising of seedlings; and an opportunity of effectually changing crops at pleasure.'

After having specified the situations proper for forest and grove-plantations, as well as for woods and coppices, and described the soils best adapted to the different kinds of forest-trees, Mr. Sang considers in detail the several trees which are fitted for the formation of forests, woods, and groves: pointing out, as he proceeds, their properties and uses. He does not enumerate the Acacia, nor the Tulip-tree, or *Lyrio-dendron*, (so named from the lyre-shape of its leaves,) which latter promises to become a very valuable tree: but he notices the Plane, both Oriental and Occidental; though the accidents to which the latter is liable in our climate must destroy our confidence in it as a permanent inhabitant of our forests:

'*Platanus orientalis*, and *P. occidentalis*.

'Both of these species, with their varieties, are fine ornamental trees. In their native places, the former in the East, and the latter in North America, they grow to an amazing size. The Eastern Plane, with its varieties, (called the Spanish, and the maple-leaved,) are more esteemed than the American kind, their leaves being larger and more elegantly formed. The general outline of the tree, however, differs but little.

'These have hitherto been considered *merely as ornamental trees* in this country, having been chiefly confined to the decoration of grounds, and even but seldom planted in the park. The disastrous effects of frost on the largest American planes in England, those in Richmond Park, at Kew, at Sion House, at Stowe, at Pain's-hill, and several other places, has alarmed proprietors of this fine tree. It is evidently less hardy than the Asiatic plane; because, in many instances, we have observed trees of both species standing near each other; the Eastern kind being nothing injured by the effects of the frost in 1809, while the trees of the Western kind were either entirely killed, or so much injured that their recovery was despaired of.* It is very singular, that of this species, the larger trees *only* were killed. Trees of from twenty to twenty-five feet in height, were little hurt; and smaller ones nothing at all; at least in every instance that came under our observation. We did not observe or hear of a single Oriental plane being injured in any part of the country.

'The timber of the Plane, so far as it is known in this kingdom, is said very much to resemble that of the sycamore.'

The fact of the destruction of large plane-trees of the occidental kind is worthy of record; and it is difficult to account for the fatal effects of a particular frost on trees which had lived uninjured through 60 or 80 preceding winters, some of them remarkably severe.

To the enumeration of deciduous and ever-green-trees, is added a short chapter on the value of timber, which may be said to finish the first part of the work.

We are next presented with the Kalendar, properly so called; in which the planter's business is arranged for every month in the year, and which cannot fail to be practically useful. As this part occupies more than 400 pages, the reader may conclude that Mr. Sang offers very minute directions in every branch of the planting-art. Indeed, he is *so* minute that we cannot, without occupying more room than we can spare, specify the various particulars into which his subject is ramified. All the report necessary for us to make is that, as the hints here given are the result of much experience, and are methodi-

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'* In the neighbourhood of London, in particular, in June 1809, a severe frost fell, which caused the above disaster. The trees were just breaking leaf; the foliage was killed; they pushed late in the season; an early autumn-frost again destroyed their feeble shoots; their juices therefore stagnated. The trees made an effort to push in 1810; but, failing, finally languished, and died.'

cally exhibited, they may be consulted with advantage; especially if regard be paid to the latitude in which they were written, and allowance be made for technical and local terms which may not be universally in use. As a proof of the writer's judgment, we may mention that he lays great stress on the proper thinning of plantations; a circumstance which is much overlooked by country-gentlemen: though by the omission many promising infant-woods are completely spoiled. When trees are left too thick, they draw up weak and spindling; they smother one another; and those even which obtain vigor sufficient to overtop their companions are so slender in their stems, as to be fit only for making hop-poles. To grow with luxuriance and beauty, trees must have "ample room and space enough;" and, though originally put in thick to keep each other warm, they should be regularly looked over, and the superfluous plants annually removed. Many cultivators have repented, when it has been too late, that they had not resolution to thin their growing plantations.

The Appendix to this volume contains several papers. The first treats of the Formation and Management of Osier Plantations; the second gives an Account of remarkable Trees in Scotland; the third states the Amount of Waste Lands in Scotland (14,218,224 acres); the fourth is a Table, useful in the Planting of Trees; and the last exhibits the Average Prices of Timber and Oak-bark, at the Port of Leith, in the Years 1799, 1809, 10, 11. It appears from this table that English Oak in 1799 was sold at Leith for 2s. 10d. per foot, and that in 1811 the price was raised to 5s.

Art. XI. *An Attempt to simplify the Notation of Music,* together with an Account of that now in Use. Illustrated by Examples both sacred and secular. By S. Rootsey, F.L.S. 4to. pp. 51. Boards. Nicol and Son.

We are among those who hail every new invention with complacency; and, so far from objecting to innovation, we are desirous that every thing should be fairly tried, and judged only as it may be found conducive to improvement or the contrary. With this feeling, we have very industriously attempted to make ourselves masters of Mr. Rootsey's plan, as detailed in the work now before us. If we are not sure that we have thoroughly succeeded, this failure is not imputable to any complication in the thing itself, which is, on the contrary, perfectly simple: but, if we have completely understood it, some parts of the subject are omitted which are so important, that we can scarcely suppose them to have escaped the notice of the ingenious author himself. The explanat of the plan, however, is too short. Brevity is always an obj but we have high authority for its near alliance to obscur On the whole, we are convinced that Mr. Rootsey's plan ne can be generally adopted, (although with some alteration may be useful to a certain extent,) and for the best possi reason, because it does not altogether possess any advantage o the mode of musical notation now in use. Mr. R. rejects ordinary mode *in toto*, and seems to make so great a point the absolute *novelty* of his plan, that in page 16. he deem necessary to apologize for retaining certain things which point of fact do not belong to the subject of notation, but wh are essential parts of the composition of music. Whatever of characters a man may chuse to adopt, he must use some of punctuation, because punctuation is essential to writ language, as denoting those circumstances which put it o level with oral language ; and in the same manner the Bar, Repeat, the Slur, &c. are absolutely essential to written mu because they express circumstances which always accomp music performed either with the voice or with an instrum The novelty of this or any other plan is in fact but a second consideration : by its probable utility it must be judged.

It is well known that music is now written by means marks made on, or between, lines drawn across the page ; t those which are written at the bottom of the lines are grave lower notes ; and those which are written at the top are hig or more acute sounds ; that they rise or fall in a regular p gression ; and that, when sounds, either lower or higher t the lines will admit, are to be expressed, occasional lines, ca ledger lines, (*lignes legers*,) are drawn below or above the fi lines.—It is also known that the sounds are called by the na of certain alphabetical characters, which recur with every oct so that on a *piano-forte* there are several notes each called A &c. These letters are only seven in number ; and the num of tones and semitones in an octave (speaking practically) be 12, five notes in each octave are without names, which there are denominated from the tones or semitones next to the thus the sound between A and B is called either A sh or B flat. All this has been adopted for practical purpo though, in a scientific point of view, musical notes are nam without reference to their situation on the finger-board, acc ing to the relation which they bear to each other ; the key-n in every mode being called *Do*, the fifth *Sol*, &c. Mr. Root however, rejects the whole of this plan, and calls his notes alp betically just as he finds them on a *piano-forte*, beginning A at the bottom ; that is, on what is now called C, (the lo on the violoncello,) and going on alphabetically through all the white and the black keys. Each letter, therefore, expresses its note, not by means of its relation to any other note, but merely by its mechanical and numerical place in the scale. With these letters Mr. R. writes his music; and it is obvious that, as the highness or lowness of the notes is expressed solely by difference in the letters, and not by any visible marks denoting those qualities, every part when written will form one line of ordinary printing. When two or more parts are wanted, two lines are used; and the bass-notes below middle C are printed in Italics. The bars are expressed by commas, or, more properly speaking, the double bars by periods, and the repeats by colons; when two or more notes are to be *slurred*, they are put together in a parenthesis; *rests* are, very ingeniously and scientifically, marked by dots occupying the space of letters; and so on. This is a short outline of the plan; from which it will be seen that the innovation is complete, and that the proposed substitute is simple enough. — With regard to its advantages, it is to be remembered that two objects are to be effected, viz. facility of writing and facility of reading. Now it is impossible to deny that the proposed plan has the advantage as far as it respects the former of these objects: but, as far as it regards the latter, the common mode of notation is incontestably preferable. We have taken the pains to learn Mr. Rootsey's notation thoroughly, so as to use it frequently in playing; and we are satisfied that it is much more perplexing to the eye of the performer than the ordinary mode. In fact, highness and lowness of notes are such essential parts of music that any system of notation would, in our opinion, be incomplete which did not include some palpable characters to mark that distinction. For this purpose, nothing can be better calculated than the common notation; which is, indeed, founded on the very mathematical expression of the gradations of sound which Mr. Rootsey notices in the first page of his work, and is therefore the most natural that could have been adopted. Besides, Mr. R.'s system of notation seems capable of being applied only to simple pieces of music, or to writing more difficult pieces in score: whereas the difficulty, to *piano-forte* players, of playing from a score, is so great that very few amateurs, and not all professional performers, are equal to it; particularly in performing at sight. On that account, a mode has been adopted of combining the lines of a score in one stave, by which they are brought under the hand. We think that Mr. R.'s plan could be very imperfectly applied to this object; and, for the reason which we have already given, it would be next to impossible to play from a score written in it. The use of it, therefore, for the *piano-forte*, or for the organ, must be very confined. The most important objection, however, is that, as far as we can see, no adequate distinction is provided to shew the *value* of notes in a bar. We must explain this by an example. In the beautiful glee of "Wind, gentle evergreen," (p. 39.) the 6th bar is written thus, (n m) (h ṁ): now certainly that bar has 4 notes, but the air being in triple time the whole can only equal 3 crotchets; and in fact the 1st and 2d notes are crotchets, but the 3d and 4th are quavers, and together are equal only to one crotchet: but this cannot be perceived from Mr. Rootsey's copy; because all that the dot over the last m denotes is that it is to be half as long as the note preceding it, which would, at least, give 3 crotchets and an half for the bar. The tying quavers and notes of lower denomination together is also a very essential practice, for which Mr. R. offers no adequate substitute. These objections might be removed without much difficulty. Perhaps a dot over the letter might denote a quaver, and some other marks in the same place might signify the lower denominations of notes: while the notes might be actually tied together, when necessary, by lines drawn over them: — but, as we cannot think that the plan is likely, at best, to be productive of any material general advantage, it is perhaps not worth while to pursue the details of the subject at present. In one point of view, indeed, the plan will have recommendations. Composers are always more or less embarrassed by the slowness with which they are able to express their thoughts on paper in the common mode of notation; and, it being much easier to write in the new notation, it may be found worth while to learn that mode for the purpose of writing in it, and afterward transferring the music into the present mode for the use of performers. In this way, Mr. R.'s notation may become a sort of musical short-hand, and afford much facility to composers.

ART. XII. *Posthumous Works of Robert Robinson*, late Pastor of the Baptist Church and Congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Cambridge. Royal 8vo. 12s. Demy, 8s. Boards. Jones, &c.

THIS volume, which is a kind of supplement to Mr. Robinson's Miscellaneous Works*, contains seven sermons, three dissertations relative to Calvinism, an historical account of Protestant Dissenting Churches in Cambridgeshire, and a few letters. Mr. Flower, the editor as well as printer, introduces the whole by a well-written and spirited preface; in which he endeavours not only to do justice to the late Mr. R. as a preacher and writer, but also to vindicate his character from some very illiberal aspersions with which certain of his brethren, with more doctrinal zeal than Christian charity, had rashly assailed it. We should regard ourselves as much deficient in moral feeling, were we to hesitate in applauding Mr. Flower's conduct, on this occasion, as not less noble than amiable; and, had not long experience taught us that such weak and acrimonious bigots as are the subjects of his virtuous indignation are neither to be reasoned nor shamed into good sense and liberality, we should venture to express a hope that his castigation would operate as a wholesome severity. How much soever some *high* Calvinists may disapprove of Mr. Robinson's *moderate* Calvinism, or may dispute his reasons for rejecting Reprobation, they are not warranted in asserting that his writings contain *poison*; for no man was ever less chargeable with the crime of endeavouring to poison the minds of his fellow-men. Perhaps it is not strictly honest to bring forwards a criminal accusation in a metaphor. Mr. R. himself was open and undisguised. He delivered his sentiments, whatever they were, in a manner that was bold and unreserved; reasoning in their favour with extreme plainness, and subjecting himself to an easy refutation if he had fallen into error.

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* See M. R., Vol. lxi., N. S., p. 65.

It will be seen, as the editor observes, (preface, p. xii.) that 'the same beauty and simplicity of style; the same ingenious, yet plain and forcible mode of reasoning; the same ardor in the cause of liberty civil and religious, and of uncorrupted Christianity; the same impartiality and sincerity in the pursuit of truth, and the same devotional spirit which are the characteristics of his former writings, characterise this volume. Very few authors have so blended instruction with entertainment, more especially on controversial subjects.' Correct taste will not always justify Mr. R. in mixing the playfulness of the light essayist with the gravity of the deep metaphysician; and the few sermons which are now before us, if adapted for delivery to a congregation of plain Christians in a barn, are not so well fitted for the closet as we could wish. As a preacher, Mr. R. was a *mannerist*; and his sermons lose much of their effect on being read by another. He aims at being extremely familiar, at taking his hearers by a *coup de main*, and at bringing out truths and inferences from his text in a manner which must create surprise if not stamp conviction.

In the three dissertations which follow the sermons, (I. On the Nature and Operations of the Human Mind as relating more particularly to theological Inquiries; — II. On

the Literary Precautions necessary in the Study of Th
logy, — and III. On the Doctrine of Predestination ; or Mo
rate Calvinism considered as the safe Path between
Extremes,) Mr. R. endeavours to be philosophical ; and
has suggested some good remarks on the limits of the hur
understanding, and on the errors which result from in
preting the figurative language of Scripture literally and
plain language metaphorically. He has also well exposed
presumptuous language of the high Calvinists, on the subj
of Election and Reprobation : but he will probably af
little satisfaction to profound metaphysicians, while to comr
Christians he may seem too deep. The very definition of
subject will at once shew that it is beyond the ken of hur
knowlege : — ‘ Predestination is the determined plan of
God's works, considered as in his eternal mind.’ After
that the wisest of men can think or write on this topic, h
ignorant must they remain ! Yet illiterate sectaries will
pute and quarrel with each other about the Divine decre
Let them be satisfied with knowing that God punishes
wicked, and has chosen the righteous for himself. Mil
assigns to the fallen Angels the task of reasoning on Fo
knowlege and Free Will ; and let us leave this dispute to fo
one of the amusements of Pandemonium.

Mr. R. confesses himself ‘ bewildered in mystery ;’
he is glad, therefore, no doubt, to excape from mystery
metaphysics to his garden and his bees. What a relief m
it be to diverge from so crabbed and perplexed a subjec
such a piece of pastoral piety as the following :

> ‘ From the simple hoeing round a cabbage, to the solemn fait
> treaties, effects flow from causes, causes from laws, or, what is
> same, from the nature of things. O glorious and inviolable dec
> watching and warning thy sons ! Thou hast *not spoken in secret*
> *dark place of the earth ;* thou hast *not said to the seed of Jacob,*
> *ye me in vain !* Dost thou destroy our liberty ? The Lord *h*
> *the heavens, and they hear the earth, and the earth hears the corn,*
> *the wine, and the oil, and they hear* the lisping of the child *Jezree*
> Perhaps I may have harboured the wish that I had been bo
> prince, and have reigned a king. But why should I have prefe
> this to another station ? Because, through inattention and preju
> I have associated ideas which indeed have no relation at all. I
> imagined greatness and happiness in union ; whereas God, *who*
> *not as man seeth,* who knows that not greatness and happiness,
> goodness and happiness are associates, has providentially cast me
> retired station. My dominion extends over three acres, and
> happier than a prince ; no neighbouring monarch disputes my
> nor harasses my frontiers. My frugal and industrious subjects
> regular communities, swell into colonies, are quietly governed by

own laws, yet neither rebel against God's nor mine; they, happy in superior protection, the crown rich with their productions,

> " ——————— Undreaming ill,
> The happy people in their waxen cells
> Sit tending public cares." THOMSON'S AUTUMN.

' Do princes taste what I taste when seated on an elm stump, my domestics bask in my presence? When my gentle cow, my willing horse, my faithful dog, my fluttering, prating poultry, surround my throne, watch my motions; and, by a thousand acts of unsuspected loyalty, tell me that I am *in league with the stones of the field, and the beasts of the field are at peace with me.* Without Raphael's or Angelo's imitation, supremely delighted with grand originals of a great master,

> " Infinite numbers, delicacies, smells,
> With hues on hues, expression cannot paint,
> The breath of nature and her endless bloom."
> THOMSON'S SPRING.

' Not Handel, with all his concords, can furnish such a symphony as mine! My musicians, heaven's pensioners, twitter in the thatch, thrill in the bushes, echo in the grove: — melody, harmony, all the day long. We *go out with joy,* we are *led forth with peace; the mountains and the hills break forth into singing, and all the trees of the field clap their hands.* O! how infinitely preferable to the world, its pomp, its pleasures, is the unpolluted joy of that still small voice, that *walketh in the garden in the cool of the day;* that wraps the face in a mantle, expands the soul in attention, and whispers, *There is none like the God of Jeshurun, who rideth upon the heaven in thy help, and in his excellency on the sky.'*

Having considered various abuses of the doctrine of Predestination, Mr. Robinson thus concludes:

' We are told that the decrees of God "should be publicly taught from the pulpit and the press; that even the meanest of the people may not be ignorant of a truth which reflects such glory on God, and is the very foundation of happiness to man."—Well, let the doctrine be publicly taught as Scripture teaches it, as a way of God *past finding out.* Let it be guarded against the various abuses to which men of corrupt minds frequently warp it. Let it be taught with all its benign consequences. Discharge the decree from conspiring the destruction of a sinner, and lay on him his own guilt. Console the faithful soul by assuring him that *fury is not in God.* Do not so teach the doctrine as to fortify the wicked, alarm the weak, or encourage the indolent. Preach it as a mystery calling for modesty, diligence, faith, gratitude, and every grace. Leave to God the arranging and executing his own decrees.'

Instead of directing that the doctrine should be preached to the multitude *as a mystery,* would it not be preferable not to preach on it at all?

The historical discourse being of a local nature, we shal pass it over; and we shall merely remark on the letters that they relate to Mr. R.'s researches in the Cambridg University-library for materials for his General History o Baptists.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For MAY, 1814.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 13. *Buonaparte*, a Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1814.

He who for so considerable a period has been the astonishment an the scourge of Europe is fallen; and such a fall, from unexample pride and greatness, who can contemplate in silence:—who can contemplate it even with calm philosophic perspicacity, unmoved by popular feelings, or unswayed by popular sentiments? Bonaparte was meteor of the very first order, bright and destructive in its passage yet sinking on a sudden into darkness and insignificance! Universa history affords not one instance of a career of such splendor, or of fall so degrading and unpitied. In future, poetry, overlooking th examples of Xerxes, Alexander, Hannibal, and Charles XII., wil descant on the history of Napoleon Bonaparte as prominently illustrative of the evils of "vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself," an will tell us, if not in the words, at least in the spirit of Johnson, tha

> "He left a name at which the world grew pale,
> To point a moral or adorn a tale."

Many years must elapse before the history of this wonder and horro of our days can be dispassionately written; and before Europe, recovered from her disasters, will be in a condition dispassionately t read it. In the mean-time, however, verse-men and prose-men wil endeavour to gratify themselves and the public by aiming a kick a the hunted-down lion; and, to make sure of the favour of the triumphant party, they will attempt to deprive the prostrate foe o every talent and of every virtue. Much as we reprobate the crime of Bonaparte, and much as we rejoice at the deliverance of Europ from his iron grasp, we would not ungenerously exult over him. I may be urged, however, in palliation of the present style of invectives, that nothing less than the most unqualified condemnation o him can be tolerated, and that not *to hate him with a perfect hatre* is to be destitute of all loyalty and public virtue. With feelings o this kind, the poem before us is in perfect unison; the author o which, though all his verse is not highly finished, will please hi readers by the warmth with which he congratulates Europe that

> 'The gloom of years at once is pass'd away,'

by the animated eulogies which he bestows on the conquerors, and b the dark colours with which he sketches the portrait of Bonaparte.

'An

'And thou, lost Chief! in spite of all thy guilt—
A world defac'd—and blood in torrents spilt—
Fain would the Muse one generous drop bestow,
One tear of pity on a prostrate foe:
But Truth, stern guide! reproves the weak desire,
And gives to loftier aims th' impartial lyre.
Vainly she strives, with curious search, to find
One spot less curst, less hateful, in thy mind;
There *all* is evil—an unlovely waste—
By nature branded, and by pow'r debas'd,
Fruitful of wrong, and mischievously wise,
Grov'ling in dust, yet grasping at the skies.'

The public will excuse the author for trying to squeeze out a tear for the object of his execration, and will not question his report when he wrote him down *all* evil; yet something very ungenerous, *certainly very unchristian*, appears in the insinuation that Napoleon ought to have filled up the measure of his crimes by suicide. We could not avoid making this remark in our last Number, and we cannot refrain from repeating it now.

Art. 14. *The Exile of Elba:* a Poem on the Downfall of Bonaparte and his Dynasty; with *The Deliverance;* an Ode, pourtraying the principal Events of the Year 1814. By John Gwilliam, Author of "The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa," &c. &c., 8vo. 3s. Jennings.

Yielding to the same impressions which animated the author of the preceding poem, Mr. Gwilliam holds up Bonaparte to universal detestation as the greatest monster of the world,—as *monstrum nullâ virtute redemptum à vitiis;* and, in order to make him more sensibly feel the disgrace of his fall, he reminds 'the Exile' of what he might have been if he had exercised a little prudence:

'Had prudence mark'd his reign—had justice thrown
Her hallow'd symbols round about his throne—
Had he on Freedom's side as bravely stood,
As when he fought for Tyranny in blood,
The world had wept at such a monarch's fall,
And sorrow mark'd the features of *us all.*'

The poet now follows Bonaparte to his exile, and contrasts his hour of glory with that of disgrace: but he has written with too much haste to attend to the polish of every line:

'Where is the man whom millions late obey'd,
Whom ———— assisted, then betray'd,—
He who confounded Europe at a breath,
And smote her children with continual death,
Whose footsteps shook the world—made sov'reigns own
And tremble at the power of his throne—
Who put to flight all Prussia's marshall'd force,
Nor stopt till Russia trembled at his course,—
Whose dauntless spirit—whose ambitious mind—
Not Europe, in one mighty league combin'd,
Could awe,—or from its deadly purpose win,
Till base desertion made the wretch *give in?*

Where is he now? and whither does *he go*—
This wretched man—this universal foe?
No scenes of tumult now remain to charm
Or stimulate the prowess of his arm,—
Stript of his plumage—by the world abjur'd—
By slaves deserted—by no phantoms lur'd—
Lo! where he bends his melancholy way,
Without one hope to charm his grief away!
Torn to his exile by the pow'r he spurn'd,
His joys all vanish'd—all his schemes o'erturn'd,—
Rack'd with the recollections of the past,
Haunted by those which never fail to last,—
Without one good companion for his friend,
To sooth the horrors of his woful end,
Lo! where he goes to hide his face in shame,
The humbled victim of a worthless fame.'

In the little island of Elba, (*how* little, when compared w the vast circuit which his power once embraced!) Bonaparte represented as on the very worst terms with his conscience, and course as goaded by the stings of remorse; yet the poet kindly fi out one balm for his woes, and recommends him 'to soothe t anguish of his tortured mind by the fervour of a woman's love.'

Turning to the restored monarch, Louis XVIII., Mr. G. co gratulates France on the joyous event, and cautions the Ki against a confidence in men (particularly Talleyrand) who on assisted Napoleon and then betrayed him. The hero of the North, t magnanimous Alexander, is extolled for the prominent part whi he has acted in the recent drama of the downfall of Bonaparte:

'But for thy vigor France had still remain'd
To see the world in tyranny enchain'd;
But thou hast crush'd the monarch who betray'd
Her dauntless soul, and with her people play'd,—
Shewn to the world in what true greatness lies,
And taught mankind to reason and be wise.
To thee all Europe sends her ardent pray'rs,
In all thy toils and all thy dangers shares,—
Looks up to thee as her defence and shield,
Fought in thy cause, and with thee scorn'd to yield:
The world's four quarters all revere thy name—
All nations pay their homage to thy fame—
Thy glory spreads as far as waves can roll,
From either tropic down to either pole,—
And men unborn shall bless the happy hour,
When Alexander check'd the tyrant's pow'r,
When he resolv'd to crush his upstart race,
And drive him into exile and disgrace!'

This praise the Emperor of Russia eminently deserves; and would be indeed a proof of a generous concern for Europe, if, aft having restored the balance of power by diminishing the overgrow empire of Bonaparte, he would content himself with "all the Russias, and not annex Poland to his own already colossal dominions.

The ode intitled 'The Deliverance,' Mr. G. informs us, w *written for the* most part in January last, but was with-hold from the public in consequence of the expected appearance of the Poet-Laureat's *Carmen Triumphale.* Both professedly adverting to the wonderful events which must for ever signalize the opening of the present year, Mr. Southey and Mr. Gwilliam travel over the same ground, and are both animated on the occasion with a patriotic fervour which may now pass for poetic inspiration.

> ' Praise to the God of empires and of men!
> Hope shews her blooming countenance again,—
> Again the days of happiness return,
> The shouts of war subside,
> And every eye with rapture seems to turn
> To France's humbled pride!
> What are her conquests now?—her works of fame
> Are lost in her discomfiture and shame,—
> And he her savage and unhallow'd chief,
> The cause of her disastrous fate,
> Shrinks from her sight like a convicted thief,
> And curses his ambition—all too late.'

The ode thus concludes:

> ' But hark! the great—the glorious cry
> Already shakes the central sky!
> Through all her realms reviving nature glows,
> The night of slavery is past;
> The tyrant's star is set at last,
> And France is rescued from her foes!
> Thy bonds are broken, Gaul! thy days of peace
> Shall smile again, and with thy strength increase,
> Four mighty nations o'er thy sufferings bend—
> Four mighty monarchs all thy wrongs befriend,
> O'er thy bright hills, and down thy silver streams,
> The glorious lily beautifully gleams,
> All nations leap with joy to hear thy fate—
> And rush to succour thy dismantled state,
> Aiming the restoration of thy throne,
> And not the pomp and splendour of their own,
> Proud to assert thy exil'd Bourbon's claim,
> And drive th' usurper to his haunt of shame!'

Mr. Gwilliam is not always sufficiently attentive to his rhymes.

Art. 15. *The Regent and the King; or a Trip from Hartwell to Dover. A Poem.* By Peter Pindar, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Johnston.

Saucy as ever, and coarser still, Peter continues to *run his rigs on royalty*, and seems to be quite on the *qui vive* on having a brace of sovereigns to turn out before his satiric muse, for the amusement of "the swinish multitude." The poor, unwieldy, gouty Louis XVIII. is indeed very ludicrously and unfeelingly exhibited. Before he is brought forth in the pomp and circumstance of recovered dignity and power, we view him as a pensioner on our bounty at Hartwell:

> ' Years twenty-three this king had found
> And munch'd his meals on English ground,
> Content with safety and with peace,
> Tho' dieted on bread and cheese.

'And oft, with pious rage, no doubt,
He d——d Napoleon and the gout;
Forc'd by the first the world to roam,
And by the last laid up at home.'

Next he is assaulted by flatterers on his recall: but, between congr
tulations and the twinges of the gout, the monarch *has a bad time of it*

' "Dear Monsieur Comte, I am so glad—
Oh! d——n dis gout, it drive me mad!—
Sweet Monsieur Perigord, I beg,—
D——n me, take care, you hurt my leg!—

' "A crown! mon Dieu, who could believe it,
God give me manners to receive it!
A crown!—oh! curse you! mind my foot;
I'll have you guillotin'd, you brute." '

Hartwell, which, while Louis was an exile, is said never to hav
seen the emblems or appendages of royalty *, is now visited by dr
goons and state-coaches, and

'His Christian Majesty's backside
On crimson now was rais'd to ride;
Tho' yesterday, that sacred part
Had scarce done honour to a cart.'

A greater honour still awaits the restored King of France:

'At Stanmore, Britain's golden c——,
Too kind, too affable by half,
Waited with pious condescension,
To pay the monarch due attention.

'Well might the giddy thoughtless throngs,
That flock'd around, God bless their tongues!
Break forth in undistinguish'd shout,
Stunning the welkin with wild rout.

'The shoutings ran to Hyde Park gate,
Where double crowds, impatient, wait,
Anxious enough, no doubt, to see
The impulse of their extacy.

'Gig, coach, landau, mule, donkey, filly,
Block'd all the road thro' Piccadilly;
Blest, but to gain a transient stare,
At France's hope, and Britain's heir.

'And France's hope, and Britain's heir,
Were, truth, a most congenial pair;
Two round, tunbellied, thriving rakes,
Like oxen fed on linseed cakes.'

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* P. P., however, is too much at variance with facts, when
speaks of the exiled king as being left in a state of poverty. H
Majesty himself, we are persuaded, would describe his treatment ver
differently. Peter is equally incorrect in representing that stat
coaches and troops finally attended at Hartwell.

Thus impudently does Peter introduce our Regent on the scene; and, without forgetting the Admiral of the Fleet, he is very liberal of his satire. He ludicrously describes the journey of the King and of the Regent to Dover; and, in order to put his Royal Highness in good humour, the wily poet hits on a lively incident to amuse the Regent in his return, when his friend Mac is sent to ride on the box to make room in the royal carriage for a Kentish buxom dame, " fat, fair, and fifty." A stanza of stars makes it as clear as the moon in what the Regent's felicity was centered; and perhaps the Prince, on being invested with all the honours of gallantry, will pass over those rough and uncourtly epithets in which Peter, as a wicked satirist, profanely indulges himself.

Art. 16. *A Song of Triumph*. By William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1814.

In this period of universal exultation, poets have but one subject; Mr. Southey has his *Carmen Triumphale*, and Mr. Sotheby has his *Song of Triumph;* and our business, as reviewers, obliges us again and again to move round in the same track, like a mill-horse, and to kick up the same dust. One consolation is, that in this task we collect something more honourable to our country than Olympic dust; and that, if the song be repeated, it is still a Song of Triumph. Mr. Sotheby does not forget to record the well-fought fields which rescued Spain; and he thus notices the great events in the North, which gave a decisive turn to affairs:

' 'Twas Freedom stood, at Gallia's fated hour,
On the red crest of Kremlin's burning tower,
And lanc'd with vengeful hand the flames on high
When Moscow's blaze illum'd the northern sky,
Lit the long tracts of ice, and o'er the flight
Of Gaul's lone despot cast funereal light,
When day was slaughter, night without repose,
Save when bleak winds some famish'd legion froze,
When horse and horseman fell without a blow,
And armies vanish'd, sepulchred in snow.'

Gratulations of our great hero and of his gallant officers make an appropriate portion of this song; and, as the lines are nervous, our readers will thank us for giving them an opportunity of perusing a few more of them:

' The Hero comes; the festive pomp prepare
With shout and gratulation rend the air!
Hush the deep plaint of woe; awhile restrain
The sigh that inly mourns the warrior slain;
To Britain's high renown be glory giv'n,
And the mute pray'r in secret breath'd to heaven.

' Thou! whose bold step, wherever glory led
From realm to realm Britannia's victories spread,
Whether thou wrap'd'st Barrossa's brow in flame,
Or fir'd'st Sebastian's fort, intrepid Grāme!
Firm Beresford! whose arm had strength to wield
A nation's fate on Lusitania's shield;

Hope! whose brave hand clos'd Moore's fame-fixed eye,
When Conquest's shout had sooth'd his latest sigh,
Then wav'd his banner o'er the Hero dead,
And to fresh fields his conquering legions led;
Cotton! whose squadrons, where thou leds't the way,
Rush'd like a storm, and swept war's firm array;
And Hill! who mid the living and the dead,
When Gaul's fresh ranks the flames of battle fed,
Tow'r'dst, as thy single host their shock withstood,
And purpled Bayonne's border-stream with blood;
Fam'd Chiefs! to grace the Hero's state, advance
Mid cow'ring eagles borne from vanquish'd France,
And blazon'd flags that wide in air display'd,
O'er-canopy his brow in floating shade.
Thus with high harmonies, and solemn song,
Thro' arcs of triumph lead his pomp along;
There Britain's Senate, Britain's Champion greet,
Heap war's rich spoils, and plan his proud retreat;
With the bold compass of imperial Rome
Spread its vast scale, and swell its trophied dome;
There on the breathing stone and pictur'd wall
Bid British art the Hero's wars recall,
And, on another Blenheim, soaring Fame
With Marlb'rough's spread triumphant Wellesley's name.'

Not only this extract but the whole of the poem is creditable to the talents of its author: but *wrapd'st*, *fir'd'st*, and *tow'r'dst*, are abominable elisions. To shew Mr. Sotheby's high opinion of the merit of the Duke of Wellington, he proposes that the shield of Achilles, wrought in massive gold after the design of Mr. Flaxman, should be presented as an appropriate trophy to Britain's unrivalled hero.

Art. 17. *Intrigue*, a Comic Interlude, in one Act, as now performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By John Poole, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1814.

The plot of this drama is acknowleged to be of French origin, but is said to have been greatly varied, and the dialogue to have been entirely re-writtten. We think, however, that it still bears the features of its descent; and though its lively character may have contributed to the indulgent reception of it for which the author is grateful, it does not require much notice from the critic.

Art. 18. *The Woodman's Hut*: a Melo-dramatic Romance in three Acts, as now performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. The Music by Mr. Horn. 8vo. 2s. Miller. 1814.

No avowal is here made, as it is in the instance just mentioned, of this play being derived from a foreign stock: but we rather suspect that something more than its *localities* and characters has been obtained from the Continent. It is calculated for effect on the stage, and we hear (for we have not seen it) that it succeeds so well in this respect that it may be contented without aspiring to any higher reputation. The conclusion of the last scene leaves an impression on the mind which is too shocking, — even for a German drama.

Art. 19. *Debtor and Creditor*, a Comedy in five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By James Kenney, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Miller. 1814.

Characters and incidents familiar to the stage compose this comedy, with the exception of an honest and feeling Yorkshire prize-fighter, who is rather new to the theatre, and we fear may be said to be rather new in London, where he probably would not long retain his country-notions. The whole is not unskilfully woven together, is conveyed in good dialogue, and furnishes a just moral, in exposing fashionable vices: but the sudden love of Barbara and Rochefort is rather revolting, which is a too common fault in novels and dramas. Barbara is a sort of imitation of the character of *the Country-Girl* in *Love for Love*, well adapted for Mrs. Jordan who personates her, or rather for the Mrs. Jordan of *twenty years ago;* and Sampson and Gosling seem to be created for Emery and Liston.

Art. 20. *The Rejected Addresses;* or, the Triumph of the Ale-king: a Farce. By William Stanley, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Cawthorn.

This Farce borrows its name, and a great part of its substance also, from the well known poetical work which appeared, two years ago, under the same title. The debt, however, thus contracted will never be repaid; for Mr. Stanley has contrived to make even what he has borrowed his own; we wish that we could say, "*pulchriora et sua*," but, alas! the first word must be exchanged for any one which the dictionary of dulness will supply. Yet the author could do better, as the following stanzas (which it will be easily seen are intended as a parody on the best of modern lyric poets) may testify:

'I dearly love those gentle souls,
  Where sense with sweetness joins,
Whose heart's warm motions taste controls,
  And love's delight refines.
I dearly love, the lovely face,
  With eyes of melting blue;
A form possessing every grace —
  A perfect maid — like you.

'But sense or beauty has no power
  To fix my roving heart;
I sip the honey, kiss the flower,
  And like the Bee depart.
A fair one, fickle as the wind,
  In me can cause no sorrow;
No — be she cruel, be she kind,
  Her chains fall off to-morrow.'

At page 37. is another song, the burden of which is 'The Emeralds set in the Silver Sea,' intended as an imitation of the same writer's style, and which is also not without merit. These instances induce us to say little on the present occasion. If we are now obliged to cry "Off," we shall have more pleasure in meeting the author in some other shape, when we can cry, "On, Stanley, On!"

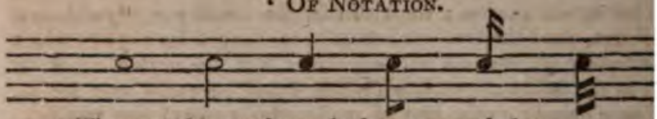
Art. 21. *Elements of Music, in Verse*, adapted to the Piano Forte, and calculated for Juvenile Study: to which are added, a Series of progressive Lessons, and a favourite Duet. By John Kelly. 4to. 5s. Sherwood and Co.

We are always disposed to think favourably of works design facilitate the studies of young persons ; and, among the various lications of this kind, no one is more intitled to praise than pamphlet now before us : in which the author conveys correctl shortly the information intended to be given. He has chosen, he ' to explain himself through the medium of poetry on account peculiar facility in making an impression on the mind ;' and, instance of the power of verse in establishing facts on the memor quotes the well known lines :

> " Thirty days hath September,
> April, June, and November," &c.

This plan, we think, may be attended with advantage. When dren are made to learn by heart, (as it is called,) almost every employs verse ; and, if the rudiments of science can be so intro into the mind, it saves the pupil much subsequent labour. Mr. has versified his subject very tolerably ; much better than it has done in most other attempts of the same kind. He seems to h good ear for poetical cadence, and his rhymes are not often f As a specimen, we extract his account of the notation of music

' OF NOTATION.



' The next thing to learn, is the proper relation
Of Notes to each other, in point of duration ;
And first comes the SEMIBREVE, *longest of all*,

The next, which are *half its length*, MINIMS we call,

Then CROTCHETS succeed ; of these, *four if we count*,

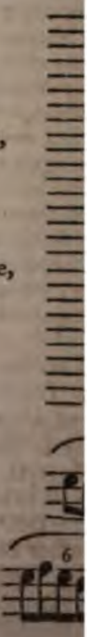
To *One Semibreve* we shall find them amount.

See next in succession the QUAVERS advance,
Gay spirited Notes, — and much us'd in a dance,
Their time — *Half a Crotchet ;* we therefore perceive,
That *Eight* are requir'd for One Semibreve.
And then comes the Note SEMIQUAVER, we find,
With the *Demi*, or HALF SEMIQUAVER behind.
Of the *first* of these two, are requir'd *sixteen*,
Of the *last*, *thirty-two*, as will shortly be seen,
To make up the Semibreve's proper duration,
Or its equal, in notes of a less valuation.
Three Notes in succession, when mark'd by a 3,

Perform'd in the time of *two such Notes* must be ;

A 6, in like manner plac'd over *six more*

Shows they must be play'd in the *same time as four*.'



The explanation of musical graces and signs is more full than usual; and the subject of intervals and major and minor modes is succinctly explained. The versification, however, still admits of much improvement, to which the author's attention should be directed. In page 16. we meet with 'on the contrāry if fourths should prevail:' in page 14. 'other scales are all form'd by transposing *of* these:' in page 13. 'they are found situ*a*ted betwixt,' &c. It should be remembered that, if the information conveyed by verse is to be impressed most lastingly on the memory, its errors may be perpetuated in a similar manner. — The author, in his preface, announces his intention to prepare a continuation as a treatise on the more intricate branches of the science, comprizing the principles of thorough bass and composition. We have no doubt that he is very competent to do this in a most useful manner, and we hope that he will accomplish it. Notwithstanding some modern publications, (of the merits of which we shall take an early opportunity to speak,) a work on musical composition, adapted for those amateurs who wish to pursue the science to a certain extent only, is much wanted: but, as we cannot think that the reasons for using verse would be applicable to such a treatise, (which in fact could not be addressed to children,) we trust that Mr. Kelly will lay aside that part of his design, if indeed it forms a part of it, and give us a short and familiar treatise on the science in prose.

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *Cursory Remarks on the meditated Attack on Norway; comprizing Strictures on Madame de Stäel Holstein's "Appeal to the Nations of Europe;" with some Historical and Statistical Fragments relating to Norway. 8vo. pp. 146. 4s. Blacklock.

Poor Norway may very justly complain of being scurvily treated; and, though her cause has been ably advocated by speakers in parliament and writers from the press, such is the decided preponderance of power against her, that little prospect appears of her being delivered from the consequences of those engagements into which England has entered respecting her. Without having committed a political crime which merited such visitation, she has been made a mere scape-goat; being appointed to suffer in subserviency to arrangements among potentates whose dominions lay at a remote distance from her, and in whose quarrels she took no part. The Norwegian nation, the hardy Swiss of the North, are to be transferred, like the serfs on a Russian estate, without their consent, to a new master; and, to induce the Crown Prince of Sweden to fight in concert with the Allies, the King of Denmark is to be robbed of a good half of his territories. Well may the Norwegians protest against such a measure, and the feelings of every virtuous man in every country of Europe must revolt at it. What evil genius could have induced the British Government thus to outrage that very principle, for the defence of which they took up arms against the subversive aggressions of France? In the case of Norway, 'an unoffending nation has been left to choose between the basest submission and all the horrors of war, accompanied by the still more terrible ravages of famine.' This political injury is aggravated by the insidious attempts which have been made, on the part of Sweden, to seduce the Norwegians from their allegiance to the King of Denmark. We can easily suppose that the Crown Prince had cast a longing eye on Norway; and that, when he threw a glance over the map of Europe, he conceived the idea of rounding the Scandinavian empire, which he is destined to inherit, by the desirable addition of Norway: but, if it be right to seize, or to accept from the hands of those who are not intitled to give, every thing which the ambition of a ruler or leader may desire, we must cease to inveigh against Bonaparte: — even his wicked attempt on Spain will find a sort of justification in our own measures.

The writer before us reprobates, in the strongest terms, all the late attempts on the independence of Norway; and he contends that, 'though kings and courtiers may choose to betray a country, the nation is not bound to abide by their decisions.' He condemns the measure in question as inhuman, cowardly, and insulting; 'as impolitic in regard to the favourable effects' which it may generally produce; and as holding forth no rational prospect of substantial and lasting benefit to Sweden herself. Some general observations of Madame de Staël, which bear on the case of the proposed junction of Norway to Sweden, are also controverted. In fine, as the author discovers a knowlege of the Norwegian character, his pamphlet is intitled to notice: but, after the decisive events which have recently taken place, it is not to be supposed that the Allies will depart from their policy; or that England, having won the Crown Prince by certain promises, will relax, if she has the power of fulfilling them.

An appendix contains an account of the agriculture of Norway, and of the establishment of an University; and it exhibits traits of Norwegian character, which are intended to shew that a foreign yoke must be galling to a race of men who are so eminently valorous, and who on former occasions have made the Swedes pay dearly for their invasion.

Art. 23. *Reflexions sur l'Etat actuel de la Norvège.* i. e. Reflections on the actual State of Norway. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

According to this writer, the recent conduct towards Norway, so strongly condemned in the pamphlet just noticed, has in it nothing extraordinary, and the cession of the kingdom of Norway to Sweden was the natural result of the political system. We are told that Norway, though herself untouched, has been in fact conquered by the events of the war in the Cimbric peninsula. The resistance of Prince Christian, Governor-general of Norway, to the cession of that kingdom, is pronounced to be indefensible; and it is farther maintained that the King of Denmark has a right to require his ceded Norwegian subjects, as the last act of obedience to him, to submit to a change of masters, especially when it is for the sake of saving the remainder of his estates to his Danish Majesty. The poor Norwegians are referred to the promises of Sweden for consolation, and are assured that the personal character of their new sovereign ought to inspire them with confidence.

This, as the ladies say, is *pretty talking:* but we cannot think that any of these reflections will convince mankind in general that Norway has been fairly used, or induce the people of that country cheerfully to submit to their hard fate. If, however, they will *not* submit willingly, they are in conclusion told that they will be *compelled* by force of arms to obey. This hint is NOT very pretty.

Art. 24. *Letter from Sir Philip Francis,* Knight of the most Honourable Order of the Bath, to Earl Grey. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1814.

The much-agitated transfer of Norway to Sweden seems to be the subject of this letter: but Sir Philip is so rambling and *narrative,* that it is not easy to say what topic floats on his pericranium. Our ministry are reminded of the original principle of the war, which they seem to have forgotten; and their conduct to Denmark, in offering one half of her dominions to another power as a bribe to espouse the cause of the allies, is reprobated as a dereliction of that principle. 'The original war itself was professedly undertaken — with what sincerity it would now be superfluous to inquire — for the avowed predominant purpose of resisting the propagation of French *principles, destructive of all order and society,* to support the cause of morality and religion, and, above all things, to assert the hereditary right of succession in every country, where a royal government had been established, and in any family which might happen to have been long in possession of the crown.'

We certainly appear, by the part which we are acting in severing Norway from the crown of Denmark, to violate the very doctrine for the support of which we drew our sword against France: but the letter-writer is not satisfied with merely urging this objection to our treatment of Denmark; he contends that, had even Denmark consented to the cession of Norway to Sweden, such cession could not be valid without the acquiescence of the people of Norway. He proposes a parallel case, which will come home at once to our feelings, and the reasoning of which cannot be resisted:

'On the point of right, I shall only ask one question. Can you or any man state a case, in which the king of these united kingdoms could have a *right,* in any extremity or under any *duress,* to alienate the kingdom of Ireland and transfer it to France? or, if he did so, would it convey a valid title to the receiver, and make it treason in the Irish to defend their independence, by taking up arms against his dominion?'

With the character of *Bernadotte,* this Knight of the Bath makes very free; and, by the evidence which he adduces, he endeavours to leave this impression on our minds, that we have paid much more for the said *Crown Prince* than he is worth.

Art. 25. *Of Buonaparte and the Bourbons,* and of the Necessity of rallying round our legitimate Princes for the Happiness of France and that of Europe. By F. A. Chateaubriand. Second Edition, revised and corrected. 8vo. 4s. Colburn. 1814.

Raving declamation may rouse the prejudices and passions of a people, but it cannot enlighten. A writer like M. Chateaubriand may, in his zeal for the cause which he espouses, abandon himself to an intemperance which will be acceptable to some partizans, but it disgust the sober and reflecting part of mankind. He begins w telling us that 'the Almighty *himself* marches openly at the head the armies, and sits in the council of kings;'—that 'the tombs our ancestors are the only solid basis of all governments;'—t 'the heart of a descendant of St. Louis is an inexhaustible treas of mercy;'—that 'Buonaparte did not know that *the heir of Chi* (meaning the Pope) was still retaining that sceptre of reeds and t crown of thorns which will soon or late triumph over the power the wicked;'—that 'Buonaparte wished to convert our s into a sort of Mamelukes, without God, without family, and wi out country, and has done more mischief to the human race in short space of ten years, than all the tyrants of Rome put toget from Nero down to the last persecutor of the Christians.' In sho Bonaparte's government is represented as so monstrously tyranni and so utterly insupportable, that it outrages all belief to supp that it could have lasted ten years. Far are we from vindicating proceedings of the degraded and exiled despot: but "give the D his due, and do not paint him blacker than he is." In describing conscription, M. de Chateaubriand asserts, 'moveable columns t versed our country like an enemy's country, to tear from the peo their last children. Were these savages complained of, the ans was, that *these moveable columns were composed of handsome ge d'armes who would console the disconsolate mothers, and restore to th what they had lost.*' This is rather incredible: but, to tax our fa still more, he adds, 'Women big with child have been put to torture, that they might reveal the place where their first-born concealed.' The following is given as a general statement:

'In the eleven years of his reign he caused more than 5 millions Frenchmen to perish, which exceeds the number of those whom civil wars swept away during three centuries, under the reign of Jo Charles V., Charles VI., Charles VII., Henry II., Francis Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV. In the twelve mon which have just elapsed, Buonaparte raised (without reckoning National Guard) 1,330,000 men, which is more than 100,000 month; and yet some one had the audacity to tell him he had o expended the superfluous population!'

No words appear to be strong enough for M. Chateaubriand express his detestation of Bonaparte, who is represented to be with talents as well as without virtue. 'The least General surpasses in abilities;' and as to his heart, 'born to destroy, he carries wi edness in his bosom as naturally as a mother carries *her fruit,* w joy and a sort of pride.'—When, however, the author comes to Bourbons, he looks out for opposite epithets, making *them* to app all that is great, good, and divine. 'With that word King, ev thing desirable is connected: but we know not what is meant by Emperor.'

'France spontaneously teems with lillies; irrigated with blood of so many expiatory victims sacrificed at the foot of scaffold of Louis and Antoinette, they will grow more beautiful t ever!'

Mu

Much reason, indeed, has France to rejoice in the recall of Louis XVIII., if this writer's character of him be just:

'Not only does Louis XVIII. possess those fixed ideas, that moderation, that good sense, so necessary to a monarch, but this Prince is also fond of literature, well informed, and eloquent like many of our kings, of a capacious and enlightened understanding, of a firm and philosophical character.'

As an enthusiast for the Bourbons, and the hater of Bonaparte, M. Chateaubriand writes up to the times: but his pamphlet, we conceive, is in too mad a strain to please the judicious even of his own party.

NOVELS.

Art. 26. *Patronage.* By Maria Edgeworth, Author of "Tales of Fashionable Life," "Belinda," "Leonora," &c. Second Edition. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1814.

Those writers who wish to be moral generally exhibit, as warnings, the downfall of schemes raised on false principles: but Miss Edgeworth, with superior skill, deters her female readers from artifice, and those of the other sex from abject dependance, by pourtraying characters whose attempts to obtain *patronage* are successful, but who remain unhappy in the midst of worldly prosperity, for want of self-esteem and affectionate family-union. If she be somewhat backward in suggesting religious motives for amiable conduct, she has drawn such attractive examples, that no one can rise from perusing this story without an impression favourable to virtue. It abounds with sensible observations and masterly strokes, and furnishes many excellent models for young people. Among these, the character of Rosamond is peculiarly well imagined; her generous acquiescence in her sister's superiority, and her affectionate zeal for promoting Caroline's triumphs, are touchingly pleasing. The exemplary perseverance of her brothers also affords an useful lesson, and the praises bestowed on the Percys by their former dependants are admirably introduced. The sketch of Lord William, in the third volume, with the personification of *mauvaise-honte*, is also new and ingenious. Above all, the prominent character of Lord Oldborough is forcibly drawn, and uncommonly well preserved: but the concluding incident, of the discovery of his son, might as well have been avoided, as derogatory to his fame.

Perhaps the story includes too many personages; though, as they have all their appropriate features, their number proceeds rather from the author's exuberance of fancy than from a repetition of imagery. Several, however, of the individuals who appear, are not allowed to speak; and this is to be lamented, because the dialogues are among the most striking and lively parts of the work. The letters from the young Percys to their parents are natural, but too long; and, in our old-fashioned estimation, "*Your's truly*" is not a respectful conclusion of a letter to a mother. Most of the cures performed by Erasmus, the physician, are trifling and improbable; the *legal* incidents are inaccurately conceived; the history of Mr. Henry and Miss Paston is an *hors-d'œuvre*, neither interesting nor illustrative; and the anecdote of Buckhurst Falconer saving the Bishop from choking is disgusting, and unworthy of the pen of this superior writer.

These pages contain also a few verbal inaccuracies, which must have been overlooked in the hurry of publication: viz. Vol. i. p. 9., 'Rosamond was so much *excited* by what had happened, that she continued talking.'—Vol. ii. p. 167. 'As to friends of your own making, they are as much your own earning, and all the *advantages* they can *be* to you *is* as honourably your's,' &c. — Vol. iv. p. 58., 'Alfred shewed that, *without* Buckhurst yielded, law must take its course.'—Page 354., 'There *was* no noisy *acclamations*,' &c.

In the preface to this edition, Miss Edgeworth disavows her having drawn living characters: but her candour is so generally acknowleged that this vindication scarcely seems necessary; and if, like *Mr. By-ends* in the *Pilgrim's Progress*, "it is her luck to jump in her judgment with the way of the times," and thus to give the effect of real portraits to the creations of her own genius, let her not repine, "but rather count it a blessing."

Art. 27. *O'Donnel*, a National Tale. By Lady Morgan, (late Miss Owenson,) Author of "The Wild Irish Girl," "Novice of St. Dominick," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Colburn. 1814.

This fair author professes to have now for the first time made "the flat realities of life" the subjects of her pen; and, accordingly, she has attempted to delineate persons of fashion, and poor Irishmen. Among the former we find too much sameness in the language, and too great an intermixture of French phrases: but the spirit of the woman of *ton* and the sleepy indifference of modish fine gentlemen are well depicted. The speeches of *M'Rory*, though too long, are often humorous; and, in general, Lady Morgan has succeeded in her patriotic attempt to exhibit her countrymen in a favourable light, and has skilfully entered the lists with Miss Edgeworth in the delineation of Irish character and manners.

O'Donnel, however, though meant to be grand, is lowered by childish vanity when he adorns himself in his hut with the order of Maria Theresa and the Cross of St. Louis; and by the credulity and irritability which expose him to mortification, whenever he is not shielded by the Duchess of Belmont's common sense and presence of mind. The heroine, also, is not more natural than was Miss Owenson's *Glorvina;* and she is far from being equally attractive, since she displays even in the most tender scenes a pert flippancy which seems to be incompatible with feeling.

Though the fair writer may escape the reproach of having *coloured too highly* in this work, which will be deemed the most *proper* of all her performances, yet she retains her predilection in favour of reformed rakes; describing Lord S. as having been "*un grand roué*," and telling us that O'Donnel himself formed his opinions respecting the female character in scenes of licentiousness. (Vide Vol. iii. page 17.)

In many passages, the grammar is incorrect, as in Vol. i. p. 6., 'We made up since we *come* here.'—P. 44., 'I wish you had not *have* taken advantage.—P. 190., 'The stranger whose graceful figure *threw* into exertion exhibited a model," &c. — Vol. ii. page 236., 'It all *come* to this that she amused her,' &c. These errors, indeed, may be merely typographical.

In volume iid, page 228., O'Donnel errs in ascribing to the Egyptian Isis the motto, "I am what I am." This was the name by which the Lord announced himself to Moses; (see Exodus, c. iii. v. 14.) and the appellation which most resembles it, among those that have been given to "the goddess with a thousand names," was probably that which was inscribed on the pavement of Minerva's temple at Sais: "I am whatsoever was, is, and shall be, and no mortal as yet hath drawn off my veil."

EDUCATION.

Art. 28. *The first Dictionary of two Languages, under a single Alphabet, English and Spanish.* By the Rev. Don Felipe Fernandez, A.M., Native of Spain, and Founder of the Royal Economical Society of Xerez de la Frontera. 8vo. Printed for the Author. No. 26. Noble Street, Falcon Square; and sold by Lackington, Dulau, &c.

The distinguishing feature of this publication is announced in the title-page; viz. the placing of the Spanish and English words indiscriminately under one alphabet. This plan appears to have been adopted for the sake of presenting to the eye a comparative table of the two languages, and of preventing the loss of time which is often occasioned by looking out a word at the wrong end of a dictionary. Against this recommendation, must be set the disadvantage of having the work in a less divisible, and therefore less portable form. Under the present arrangement, also, Spanish words may in many instances be mistaken, at first sight, for English, and *vice versâ*: an inconvenience which might have been avoided by printing one language throughout in italics.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *The History of the distressing Loss and happy Recovery of little Thomas Dellow,* who was stolen from St. Martin's Lane, Upper Thames Street, London, on the 18th of November 1811; and discovered at Gosport in Hampshire on the 28th of December following. 12mo. 1s. Darton, Harvey, and Darton. 1812.

This little tract details all the circumstances yet known, relative to a strange affair by which the public was considerably interested; and the narrative will excite sympathy in those young readers who may meet with it.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'The Author of "Travels at Home" begs leave to observe to the Editor of the Monthly Review, that he has been misunderstood by the critic who noticed his work in the Number for April, when represented as assigning to Mount St. Gothard the route of Hannibal. He refers to "these abodes of eternal snow," the Alps, generally, and never thought that the passage in question was that of the Punic chief. — He cannot help remarking also that, as his plan is totally different from that of Mrs. Wakefield and Mr. Evans, and indeed that every other preceding writer, there can be no competition betwee them on the ground of *novelty* and originality.'

We have inserted the above note just as we received it: but w shall now copy the short passage in the work on which we anima verted, relative to Hannibal, and enable the reader to judge wheth the context did not justify our remark: (Vol. ii., p. 187, 188. 'We must clothe ourselves in furs and flannel to mount to the froze summit of the St. Gothard. How astonishing it is that armies shoul have mastered these abodes of everlasting snow! Hannibal shewe the way, whose passage has been rendered famous by the historians ancient times.'—If the author does not mean Hannibal's troops, b 'the armies which have mastered these abodes of snow,' what armi does he mean? for he must recollect that Bonaparte's forces were le over Mount St. Bernard; —and if 'these abodes' do not mean S Gothard, where is the other antecedent to which they refer?

As to the similarity of the design of these Travels with that others, we must still observe that the leading idea of forming ima ginary excursions is the same; and as to minor shades of differenc we did not mean to discriminate them.

The request in the (*perfumed*) letter from Wells is partly answere in this Number: but the writer attaches too much importance to hi (her) favorite 'departement' of reading, and expresses his (her wishes with an amusing importance.

We have not yet seen the work respecting which A. F. H. appears to be particularly sollicitous.

The subject of the communication from Preston, as well as th *plain-speaking* in the note, would have led us to doubt that a *lawye* was our correspondent: but, when we observed that his partiality wa for a *preamble*, and when we scrutinized the hand-writing, we submitted to the truth of the writer's description of himself.—We sha attend farther to this letter when we have more leisure than we hav at this moment.

Mr. Flower wishes us to observe that the Essay on the Characte of Charles I., by Mr. Towgood, which we recommended in our ac count of Mr. T.'s Tracts, (Rev. for April,) is published in a separat volume, at the price of 3s. 6d. — We must decline the notice of th pamphlet mentioned by Mr. F., being so much pressed by *new* publications. He will see that Mr. R.'s works have a place in our cur rent Number.

Matilda will excuse us for differing totally with her, on both th points of her second letter.

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxiii. of the M. R. is published wit this Number, and contains, as usual, FOREIGN LITERATURE, wit the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JUNE, 1814.

Art. I. *Voyage round the World*, in the Years 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806, by Order of his Imperial Majesty Alexander I., on board the Ships Nadeshda and Neva, under the Command of Captain A. J. von Krusenstern, of the Imperial Navy. Translated from the Original German by Richard Belgrave Hoppner, Esq. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 718. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1813.

THE discovery of Kamtschatka took place, with other discoveries in Russia, in the reign of Peter the Great, and dates from the year 1696. In subsequent years, expeditions were undertaken to examine the position of the Kurile islands, a long range which stretches from north to south, and almost connects the southern point of Kamtschatka with the north-west point of the Japanese island of Jesso; and, with his usual ardour for maritime enterprize, Peter, shortly before his death, prepared the well-known expedition from Europe to Kamtschatka, which was commanded by Commodore Behring, one of the objects of which was to ascertain the distance between the respective continents of Asia and America. Though that point was not attained, a considerable additional stock of information was acquired with regard to the navigation of the eastern ocean; and a farther voyage being undertaken by Behring in 1741, the western coast of America was discovered in the high latitudes of 56°, 57°, and 58°, together with the island since known by the name of Aleutic or Aleutian. Since that time, successive attempts have been made by the Russian government to extend their knowlege of these seas; and the Petersburg merchants have been animated by a strong desire to establish a trade in furs and seal-skins, between these northerly regions and China. The high price given in China for these articles induced speculators to persevere, amid the innumerable difficulties which are encountered in carrying on the trade: the Chinese being accustomed to alter their dress on the occurrence of slight changes of weather; and even at Canton, which is near their southern frontier, they wear furs in winter. We need not wonder, therefore, that the Russians were tempted to cultivate this branch of traffic; though their shipping, and their skill in navigation, were of so deficient a nature, that in general they annually lost one ship in three.

In the year 1785, the Russian merchants engaged in the trade of furs and seal-skins were combined into a joint-stock association under the name of the American Company; and their chief factory was fixed on the island of Kodiak, a central situation between the Aleutic islands and Kamtschatka to the west, and the coast of America to the east. Nothing, however, could be more imperfect than the condition of these factories, with regard either to defence or to the means of equipping ships for sea. Their supplies had been received by land along the almost immeasurable length of Asiatic Russia; a journey which, taking in the deviation by the town of Irkutsk, has been calculated at the almost incredible extent of eight or nine thousand miles. Heavy commodities, such as cables, were cut into pieces of seven or eight fathoms in length, and spliced together at the end of this most tedious peregrination. Anchors it was almost impossible to transmit, but they also were carried thither in pieces, and afterward joined together. The mode of conveyance, being over a frozen surface, was, for land-carriage, comparatively easy: but the distance was so very great, that European merchandise of all kinds was sold at twenty times its original cost; so that it evidently became indispensable to relinquish the plan of journeying by land, and to export commodities from the Baltic by sea, round Cape Horn, or the Cape of Good Hope. Obvious as this course was, the resolution to attempt it was first taken by Russia so lately as in 1803, and proceeded from Captain Krusenstern; who had served in the English navy from 1793 to 1799, and had been strongly impressed with the advantages which would accrue to Russia from the extension of her traffic with China.

Captain K. visited Canton in 1799, and had ocular observation of the large profits which were obtained by the English and the Americans, who brought furs from the north-west coast of America. On returning to Russia, therefore, he made repeated attempts to interest government in the support of the projected traffic: but he met with a series of discouragements, and had almost relinquished the hope of success, when in 1802 he was apprized that the Russian cabinet had at last come to an affirmative determination, and had fixed on him as the commander of the expedition. The limited extent of the Russian marine not supplying two vessels of a proper construction, persons were dispatched to purchase them at Hamburgh: but, none being found there of a suitable description, they proceeded to London, 'the only place,' says Captain K., 'where we can reckon with certainty on having a choice of good vessels.' There, at last, two ships, one of 370 and one of 450 tons, were purchased; at an expence, including repairs, of 22,000l. sterling. They were forthwith honoured with Russian appellations, the larger being named the Nadeshda, or the Hope; and the smaller, which proved the better sailer, being called the Neva. In the mean-time, the Russian cabinet resolved to superadd to the nautical objects of the expedition, one of a diplomatic nature, viz. an embassy to the court of Japan; hopes being entertained that, by the transmission of a flattering letter, and the display of pomp in the embassy, an impression might be made which would be favourable to the opening of an intercourse with that otherwise forbidden territory. M. Resanoff, a man of rank, was accordingly appointed ambassador; and valuable presents were prepared for his Japanese Majesty and his ministers. With this envoy, and with respectable associates in the capacity of physician, surgeon, astronomer, draughtsman, and naturalist, Captain K. set sail from Cronstadt in August 1803. Excepting the scientific men, the whole of his companions, officers as well as sailors, were Russians. 'I had been advised,' he says, 'to take some foreigners among my crew; but I knew too much of the spirit of Russian sailors, whom I prefer to all others, even to the English, to listen to this proposition.'

After having passed some time at Copenhagen, and subsequently at Falmouth, the Nadeshda and her consort proceeded to the Canaries, the coast of Brazil, Cape Horn, and finally to the Washington islands, which lie towards the middle of the immense Pacific Ocean, about nine degrees south of the equator. They form part of a large groupe of islands which have long been known by the general name of Marquesas; and the separate cluster which they constitute received the appellation of Washington from the Captain of an American merchantman, who first visited them in 1791: but French and English navigators; not considering in the light of a discovery this visit to a portion of an assemblage of islands, of which the general position was previously known, have declined to give them the name of the American legislator. Captain K. came in sight of Nukahiwa, one of the Washington islands, on the 6th of May 1804, and steered along shore in quest of the harbour called Port Anna Maria:

'The whole coast appears like an uninterrupted line of perpendicular rocks, connected with a chain of mountains, streching quite inland. These craggy barren rocks have a gloomy appearance, which is only enlivened by beautiful cascades, falling near each other, from the rocks into the sea, from a height of at least 1000 feet.—

‘ At eleven o’clock we perceived to the westward a canoe rowi off to us: it had an outrigger, and was paddled along by eight dians; and I was much struck by a white flag it had hoisted, a tok of peace that led me to expect some European on board of it. expectations were soon confirmed. There was an Englishman in boat, who at first had quite the appearance of one of the islande his dress being entirely in their fashion, consisting merely of a gir round the waist. He shewed me the certificates of two America (to whom he had been of assistance during their stay here, parti larly by procuring them wood and water,) in which it was attes that he had conducted himself well; and he offered me his servi which I readily accepted, being glad to procure so good an int preter, by whose assistance I hoped to obtain some particular inf mation upon this almost unknown island. This Englishman, wh name was Roberts, told us that he had been seven years upon island, and two years previously in that of Santa Christina; that had been put on shore on the latter, out of an English merchant-sh the crew of which had mutinied against their captain, and could prevail upon him to join their party, and in Nukahiwa he had lat married a relation of the King’s, by which he acquired great co deration; so that it would be very easy for him to be of assista to us.’ —

‘ We had scarcely let go our anchor, when the ship was rounded by several hundred of the inhabitants, who brought coc nuts, bread-fruit, and bananas for sale. The only things we co give them in exchange were pieces of old iron hoops, four or inches long, with which I had supplied both ships for this purp while we lay at Cronstadt. Such a piece was usually the price five cocoa-nuts and three or four of the bread-fruit; but though th seemed to set a very high value on these, axes and hatchets were chief objects of their wishes. They shewed a childish joy on receivi even a small piece of iron hoop, and usually evinced their satisfact by a loud laugh, displaying their newly acquired riches with an of triumph to their less fortunate companions, who swam round ship.—

‘ At four in the afternoon the King and his suite came on boa His name was Tapega Kettenowee. He was a very strong, made man, with a thick and extremely fat neck, from forty to for five years of age. His body was tatooed with a dark colour proaching to black, so completely, that it even extended to spots his head from which the hair had been cut away. He was in no to be distinguished from the lowest of his subjects; being, with exception of the tschiabu *, entirely naked. I led him to my cal and gave him a knife and a piece of red cloth about twenty ells lo which he immediately bound round his loins. To his suite, consist chiefly of his relations, I also made some presents, although Rob advised me not to be so generous, telling me that not one of th not even the King, would ever make me any return for them.

‘ * Tschiabu is the girdle which the savages wear round th waist; in the Sandwich isles it is called maro.’

this time I imagined that the King's authority here was equal to that of the sovereigns of the Sandwich and Society islands; but I was soon convinced of the contrary.—

'At sunset all the men without exception went on shore; but about 100 of the females still remained near the ship, round which they had been swimming during five hours. In this time they had made use of every art in their power to declare the object of their visit, nor could they doubt that their wishes were understood, since neither their pantomime nor their attitudes could be mistaken.—This debasement of the female sex is less occasioned by levity or ungovernable passion in them, than by their duty to the unnatural and tyrannical orders of their husbands and fathers, who sent off their wives and daughters to procure small pieces of iron and other trifles, and in the morning were seen swimming out to meet them and take possession of the treasures which they had obtained.'

Next morning, Captain K. had the honour of a visit from the whole royal family, females as well as males. When he took them into his cabin, they were wonderfully pleased with the sight of a painting of his wife; and still more with a large mirror in which they were able to view their persons at full length, and which caught the King's fancy so much that, in every subsequent visit, he immediately repaired to the cabin, and stood before the glass for whole hours. On the second day, the Captain went on shore, accompanied by the ambassador, by most of his officers, and by a well armed escort. They were received by a large concourse of people of both sexes; and, on entering the royal dwelling, Captain Krusenstern sat down among the females, who examined his hands, his clothes, his hat, the embroidery of his uniform, &c. with much curiosity. Mats being spread, a repast of cocoa-nuts and bananas with water was put before them; and, as a farther proof of friendship, assistance was given by the natives to the sailors who were employed in replenishing the water-casks. This harmony, however, was on the point of receiving a serious interruption. The King having come to the ship in the morning of the twelfth of May, and remained some hours, intelligence was brought that the islanders were in a state of great confusion, and had taken up arms on the circulation of a report that their chief had been put in irons on board. This tumult, it was afterward ascertained, had been excited by a Frenchman of the name of Cabrit, who had been long resident on the island, and who was exceedingly mortified at the confidence placed by Captain K. in his rival, Roberts. Fortunately, explanations took place, and the dreaded insurrection was appeased without bloodshed: but the Captain cannot forego the opportunity of moralizing (p. 111, 112.) on the inveterate hatred of the French and English, and on the calamities of which it is productive

ductive to the rest of the world. In the present case, it is clear that the balance of respectability was decidedly on the side of our countryman; against whom his Gallic rival could substantiate no other charge than a refusal to participate in the fashionable thefts of the community. The Frenchman, on the other hand, had rendered himself, in the course of ten years, a perfect savage in his mode of living, in his amusements, and even in his plan of warfare; with the single exception of abstaining from the abominable practice of cannibalism.

'The Nukahiwers * are invariably of a large stature, and well made; they are very muscular, with a long handsome neck; have a great regularity of countenance, and an air of real goodness which was not belied by their dealings with us: but when we consider the cruelties of which these men are capable, the prejudice in their favour which the beauty of their person is very likely to create, soon vanishes, and their countenance seems to indicate nothing but apathy. An animated eye none of them possess. By tatooing their bodies very much, and rubbing them with a dark colour, they acquire a black appearance; otherwise their natural colour is clear, at least that of the boys and women who are not tatooed, was so; nor do they differ very much from the colour of Europeans, being only rather more yellow. These islanders are besides remarkable for having no deformed persons among them, none of us at least saw any, and their bodies are besides very free from *biles* and sores, owing to their great temperance; for the custom of drinking kava, so common to all the islands of this ocean, and the immoderate use of which is so prejudicial to the health, as frequently to occasion a distortion of the body, is only known here to a few, and is never observed but with the greatest temperance. The Nukahiwers are in the enviable possession of the most constant health, and they have hitherto been so fortunate as to escape the venereal disease: as they are free from complaint, so they are ignorant of all medicine. Their fear of the kaha, a species of charm supposed to produce sickness, and of which I shall speak hereafter, increases, perhaps, by its influence on the imagination, any disposition to illness; but its remedy, the removal of the charm, sufficiently distinguishes it from common disease; and their whole medical system consists in binding up wounds, in which the King is said to be particularly skilful.

'Among the very handsome people of this island, we observed two in particular who excited the admiration of us all. The one was a great warrior of Tayo Hoae, and, at the same time, what, in the language of the country, is called Fire-lighter to the King; his name was Mau-ha-u, and he was perhaps one of the handsomest men that

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'* I can only speak of the inhabitants of this island whom I know: but the description of the Nukahiwer will refer equally to the natives of all the group of Washington, as well as Mendoza islands, among whom there is a perfect resemblance in language, government, manners, and customs.'

ever existed: he was six feet two inches high, and every part of his body perfectly beautiful. The other was Bauting, King of the vale of Schegua, who, notwithanding his age, for he certainly was not less than fifty, was still extremely handsome.

'The women all looked well; at least nothing could be said against their countenances. A well proportioned head, a face rather round than long, a large sparkling eye, blooming colour, very good teeth, curled hair, which they ornamented with a white band, in a manner very becoming to them all, and the remarkably clear colour of their bodies, may perhaps entitle them to a preference over the inhabitants of the Sandwich, Society, and Friendly Islands; yet an impartial eye might perceive many faults in them, which the companions of Mendana and Marchand either overlooked, or would not discover. Their form, for instance, is any thing but beautiful; their person is generally short, and without carriage, and this is the case even with girls of eighteen; their gait is likewise aukward and unsteady, and their lower stomach particularly large: their ideas of beauty must be very different from ours, otherwise they would take more pains to conceal their defects; a piece of stuff of middling size, wrapped carelessly round them, being the only covering, and that an incomplete one, of their beauties as well as their imperfections.'

It is a curious fact in the state of society among these savages, that their chief, or king, (as voyagers choose to call him,) possesses very little authority. He is not distinguished by dress from the lowest of his subjects; and, should he venture to give a blow, he would no doubt meet with a similar return. In war, he may have a kind of command: but, from the insulated nature of the operations of these people, it is probably of a very limited nature. The want of controul in the executive power prevents justice from being administered; so that, in this strange community, stealing not only goes unpunished, but forms a matter of boast. Murder alone brings down vengeance on the perpetrator; not, however, by the power or in the name of the society, but from the relations of the slain, who are determined on having blood for blood. The priests possess great influence over these islanders, and are accounted the only persons capable of giving effect to those charms, of the potency of which the belief is universal among them. To calculate the population of the island of Nukahiwa, which is upwards of sixty miles in circumference, was no easy matter: but Captain K. estimates it (p. 178.) at 12,000. They are divided into several tribes, under their respective chiefs, and are accustomed to make war on each other in the most disgusting manner:

'They seldom meet in large parties in the field; but their usual mode of warfare is, to be constantly watching for, and secretly seeking to butcher their prey, which they devour on the spot. He who evinces the greatest skill in these arts, who can lie the longest on his belly perfectly motionless, who can breathe the lowest, run the swiftest, and spring with the greatest agility from one precipice to another, acquires no less reputation among his comrades, than the brave and powerful Mau-ha-u. In all these attainments the Frenchman particularly excelled, and he has since frequently amused us with a relation of his exploits, and of the numbers whom he has slain, in this mode of warfare; entering into a particular detail of all the circumstances.—Their arms consist of clubs, spears, and slings. The clubs are about five feet long, of casuarina wood, beautifully polished, and very massy, not weighing less than ten pounds; and at their extremity is a carved human head. The spears are of the same wood, ten or twelve feet long, about an inch thick in the middle, and sharp at each end. Their slings are simply a woven band, broad and flat in the middle to admit the stone.'—

'The two Europeans whom we found here, and who had both resided with them for several years, agreed in their assertions, that the natives of Nukahiwa were a cruel intractable people, and, without even the exception of the female sex, very much addicted to cannibalism; that the appearance of content and good humour, with which they had so much deceived us, was not their true character; and that nothing but the fear of punishment, and the hopes of reward, deterred them from giving a loose to their savage passions.'—

'In times of famine the men butcher their wives and children, and their aged parents; they bake and stew their flesh, and devour it with the greatest satisfaction. Even the tender looking female, whose eyes beam nothing but beauty, will join, if permitted, in this horrid repast. Can such people then be defended? Can any one join with George Forster in asserting that the islanders of the South Sea are a good natured, mild, and uncontaminated people? Fear alone prevents their murdering and devouring every stranger who arrives. As a proof of this, I need only relate, that some years ago an American merchant-ship put into Port Anna Maria, and the captain, who was a Quaker, suffered his people to go on shore unarmed; but the natives no sooner perceived their defenceless condition, than they assembled in order to attack and drag them into the mountains. Roberts succeeded, with the greatest difficulty, and with the assistance of the King, to whom he represented the treachery of their conduct, and the consequence it would infallibly bring upon the whole island, in rescuing them out of the hands of these cannibals. Nor did we ourselves want a proof of their being denied every feeling of justice and goodness; for although, during our stay, no one had ever shewn them the least ill will, but, on the contrary, every possible kindness, in order to inspire them with benevolence, if not with gratitude, our conduct seemed to have quite a different effect upon them. A report had spread that one of our ships had struck, occasioned by our being obliged, while in the act of sailing out, to bring up close to the shore, as I have related in the seventh chapter. In less than two hours a number of the islanders had assembled on the beach close to the ship, all armed with clubs, axes, and spears. What then could be their intention but to plunder and murder us? The Frenchman too, who came on board at that moment, acquainted us with the hostile intentions of the inhabitants, and of the whole valley's being in an uproar.'

The houses of Nukahiwa, if such they deserve to be called, are built of bamboo, interwoven with fern and the leaves of the cocoa-tree. The inside of the dwelling is divided into two parts by a beam; the front being paved with stones, and the back part covered with mats, on which the family sleep indiscriminately. A door, about three feet high, is made in the middle of the dwelling, and round it the inhabitants generally sit. Their tools consist of little more than a pointed stone with which they bore holes, and of axes made of small pieces of iron which they have received in barter from Europeans, and fastened to a handle. As to cultivation, they pay very little attention to any thing that gives them trouble. The bread-fruit-tree, the cocoa, and the banana, require scarcely any care; nothing more being necessary than to dig a hole and fix a branch in it, after which the plant is in full growth in a month's time. Fishing is equally neglected, on account of the labour attending it; and the natives generally pass the greatest part of the day in lolling on their mats. In addition to bananas, their food consists of yams and sour pudding, a kind of dough, which is not disagreeable, and may be compared in taste to an apple-tart. Abundant as provisions might be rendered, seasons of scarcity sometimes occur. Captain K. was unable to learn (p. 160.) the exact nature of certain associations formed by the King, the priests, and some other leading persons, on the principle of affording food to the members at the expence of the head of the club at all seasons, even under circumstances of the greatest scarcity: but there can be no doubt that the parties receiving this favour were pledged to a specific service in return; since nothing like disinterested attachment was perceptible among them. The King's club consisted of twenty-six members, the largest number in any of the associations, he being the person possessing most property in the country; and, if we judge from his conduct, he is not likely to diminish that property by unprofitable donations:

'The King gave us several examples of his want of liberality, or rather of his greediness; nor did he, in any instance, afford a single proof of his gratitude or benevolence. On every visit, I made the King presents, certainly of no great value in themselves, but of some importance to a Nukahiwer; yet he did not even once bring a cocoa-nut in return; and when, upon the misunderstanding which, as I have related in the seventh chapter, nearly led to a dispute, he came on board and brought me a pepper-plant as a proof of reconciliation; he seemed even to regret this present, and in about half an hour afterwards asked me, in case I should make no use of, to return it to him.' —

'The men always go naked, and in this respect even the King was not different from the rest; for I do not consider as clothing, the small coarse piece of stuff, made of the bark of the cloth-mulberry plant, which they wear round their loins.'—'The dress of the women consists of a girdle, drawn like that of the men between their thighs, and of a piece of stuff, which, as I have already mentioned, scarcely covers them, and hangs down to the calf of the leg; sometimes, when they swam off to the ship, they threw away every thing, even to their tschiabu. They anoint their body every day with the oil of cocoa, which certainly gives it a great gloss, but is accompanied with a very disagreeable smell. Whether this is intended as an ornament, or to protect them from the rays of the sun, and from insects, against which the men preserve themselves by tatooing, and a yellow colour mixed with oil, rubbed over their bodies, I cannot positively determine; but I believe that both these purposes are effected by it.'—

'From the information which I collected of their family-connections, they do not appear to be of the happiest nature. Although the Nukahiwer has so far removed himself from the brute creation, that the generality of the women are bound by connubial vows, still this oath is very little observed by any of them. It is probably an agreement to live together, arising either from a mutual inclination or interest; and is afterwards continued from habit, or from the original motive still remaining in force; and notwithstanding the shortness of our stay here, we found sufficient to convince us, that the virtuous ideas of the duties and relations of a married state, avowed by some of the people of this ocean, even to an extraordinary degree, are entirely unknown in Nukahiwa: — in a word, adultery is a crime tolerated by them all.'

Captain Krusenstern had proposed to hold a new course from the Marquesas to Kamtschatka, in the hope of making discoveries: but the insignificance of the live-stock procured on the island of Nukahiwa made it his duty to proceed to the Sandwich islands, in order to obtain fresh provisions. On reaching that quarter, he stood in for the coast of Owhyhee, and coasted along shore under top-sails, heaving-to whenever he saw any canoes put off. Their cargoes, however, did not answer his expectation, being composed of stuffs of the manufacture of the island, with scarcely any provisions. Repeated intercourse with American navigators had rendered the natives indifferent to iron or tools as objects of barter, and no articles were acceptable but cloth, or such as would flatter the vanity of the wearer. The inhabitants displayed considerably greater skill in navigation than their southern brethern of the Marquesas, but they were much less handsome, and disfigured by marks of disease apparently consequent on their intercourse with Europeans. Captain K. accordingly left Owhyhee with little other gratification than the sight of its immense mountain Mowna Roa, which is computed to exceed 13,000 feet in height; and here he parted, for a season, from the Neva, whose destination was not to Japan, but to the Aleutic islands. An expeditious passage of a month from Owhyhee brought him to Kamtschatka, and enabled him to anchor, on the 14th of July, in the harbour of Petropaulosk, or St. Peter and St. Paul. He enters at considerable length into the description of this remote and desolate region:

'The first prospect of St. Peter and St. Paul might raise in the mind of a person newly arrived, and ignorant of the history of this Russian establishment, the idea of its being a colony founded a few years before, but recently abandoned. Nothing is visible here that could at all persuade any one of its being inhabited by civilized people: not only Awatscha bay, but the three adjoining ones are entirely forlorn and uninhabited; nor is the beautiful harbour of Saint Peter and Saint Paul enlivened by a single boat. Instead of this the shores are strewed with stinking fish, among which a number of half starved dogs are seen wallowing and contending for possession.—It is perfectly in vain that you look about, upon landing, for even one well built house: in vain does the eye seek a road, or even a well beaten path, along which a person may walk in safety to the town: no garden, no meadow, no plantation or inclosure of any kind indicative of the least cultivation; the only things to be perceived are a few huts, mostly in a decayed state, Balagans and Jurten. Instead of bridges over the few small brooks that flow from the neighbouring mountains into the valley where the town stands, are merely planks laid across them, and these only passable with the greatest attention. Five or six cows feeding in the vicinity of the houses, and innumerable dogs lying about in holes which they dig as resting-places, and as a shelter against the flies, rendering it, if not impossible, at least extremely dangerous, to walk after dark, are the only objects at Saint Peter and Saint Paul. As the greater part of the inhabitants are from Sachalin, and are absent during the whole day, you may remain here several hours without meeting a single person; and in the pale emaciated countenances of those you do at length perceive, it is not easy to recognize the descendants of the heroic Von Rimnik, and of Trebbia.'—

'There is scarcely any difference between the life of the officer, the merchant, the priest, or the soldier: the one may, indeed, possess more money than the other; but as money is not held here in any estimation, this naturally produces a great equality in their rank, at least in their mode of living.'—

'Bread and salt are two articles invariably possessed by the poorest beggar in Europe; but in Kamtschatka, where, owing to the increased number of the military, the consumption of bread is very considerable, and the conveyance is so very difficult and expensive, the soldier obtains only half his ration in flour, and the other half in money, yet never to an amount sufficient to enable him to purchase it: for the merchant of Kamtschatka will not import flour, because it is frequently injured during the journey, by which means the cost is sacrificed, whilst, on the contrary, gin is always sure to produce a clear and immediate profit.—

'The scarcity of salt is still greater than that of bread; on our arrival a few pounds of salt were considered as a valuable present, and great as was their partiality for spirits, those who brought us fish, berries, or game, were infinitely more thankful for a little of the former, than when we rewarded their labours with gin, which I scarcely ever gave to them.'—'Black bread, and fish dressed without sauce or spice, without salt, vinegar, or pepper, are the only provisions which the officers, as well as the men, are able, for a constancy, to set upon their tables. There is nothing a hardy soldier will not endure so long as he is in good health; but if he falls sick, to what a wretched, miserable, helpless condition is he reduced! No physician, no medicine, no reviving draught, nor strengthening diet, are to be procured at St. Peter and St. Paul.'

Notwithstanding these discouraging circumstances, the author is of opinion that considerable improvements may be effected in the situation of this very wretched settlement. The climate, he maintains, (Vol. ii. p. 220.) is less unfavourable at a distance from the sea, and would enable the inhabitants to grow corn, and many kinds of vegetables. Along the coast, the great annoyance arises from frequency of fogs; which, however, are by no means insurmountable obstacles to the cultivation of vegetables. The destitute state of the settlement is chiefly owing to the indolence of the inhabitants and their immoderate use of spirituous liquors; since, whatever may be the scarcity of other articles, gin is always to be obtained. Were this harbour frequented by ships from Europe, a large portion of the adjoining continent might be supplied with foreign goods from our quarter of the globe, instead of having them dragged, by over-land carriage, across the whole of Russia and Siberia. A residence at Kamtschatka has been deemed so great a penance, that the Russian government found it necessary to offer double pay to the officers and soldiers who go thither, with liberty to return at the end of five years, and with a certainty of additional advantage if they choose to remain. Indeed, nothing less than temptations of this nature are necessary; for such is the starving state of the settlement of Petropaulosk, that the number of horned cattle does not exceed twenty, and the Governor took the trouble of sending more than four hundred miles for a pitiful supply of five oxen.

'In St. Peter and St. Paul there were only two houses at all better than the rest, one of which was inhabited by Major Krupskoi, the commandant of the fort, and the other by two artillery officers. Both of these houses, one of them of considerable size, consisted of very habitable rooms, kitchens, store-rooms, &c., and both, particularly that of the Major, might, with very little alteration and decent furniture, be rendered very tolerable dwellings. Although, even in the condition in which we saw them, they were the very ornament of Kamtschatka, the furniture of the anti-room consisted merely of a wooden stool, a table, and two or three broken chairs. There was neither earthen-ware nor porcelain table-service: no glasses, decanters, nor any thing of a similar nature: two or three tea-cups, one glass, a few broken knives and forks, and some pewter spoons, constituted the wealth of these good people, who were both married. But what most of all distressed me was the condition of their windows: they had not double sashes, which, in a cold climate, are as necessary to health as to comfort; but such even as they had were in a very wretched condition. The panes were of glass, but notwithstanding their extreme smallness they were all of them broken, and made of pieces fitted together. They afforded no protection against the snow and frost; and I could not, without feelings of commiseration, behold the children, who in no part of the world are brought up so wretchedly as here. Milk, when the parents are sufficiently rich to keep a cow, (and few are in this condition,) is the only thing with which they are nourished. Jukula and coarse black bread is hard food for a child from twelve to eighteen months old, and must, in case of any obstruction, contribute to terminate their existence.

'The houses of the other inhabitants are invariably ill built, and all of so little elevation that, during the winter, they are entirely covered with snow. From the door a path-way is cut through the snow, and this, as it forms a thick wall round the house, may indeed contribute to the warmth, but must necessarily occasion a very unhealthy atmosphere within them, as it rises considerably above the house, and prevents the possibility of introducing any ventilator. They have therefore no fresh air throughout the winter in any of the rooms; and it is to this, and to the badness of their provisions, that I, in a great measure, ascribe the pallid hue of all the inhabitants, even of the youngest females.'

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *A Topographical Dictionary of Ireland;* exhibiting the Names of the several Cities, Towns, Parishes, and Villages, with the Barony, County, and Province, to which they respectively belong; — the Valuation and present State of the Ecclesiastical Benefices; — the Distance and Bearing of every Place from the nearest Post-Office, and of the Post-Offices from the Metropolis; — Fairs; — Members of Parliament, and Corporations; — Charter-Schools; — and Assizes. To which is added, Miscellaneous Information respecting Monastic Foundations, and other Matters of Local History. Collected from the most authentic Documents, and arranged in alphabetical Order. Being a Continuation of the Topography of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. By Nicholas Carlisle, Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries of London. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Nicol and Son.

With that spirit of patient research, and that sollicitude to obtain the most authentic information, which were so laudably displayed in his Dictionaries of England and Wales [*], Mr. Carlisle has prosecuted his inquiries relative to the topography of Ireland; and, as an antiquary and ecclesiastical reporter, he has executed his task in a very able manner. For a book of reference on all the subjects specified in the title, this Dictionary will be found extremely useful: but for local and picturesque description it will often be deemed deficient, since this is an article not included in the bill of fare. To the state of the Irish Protestant Church, Mr. C. has paid the most minute attention; and, in the preface, which fully enumerates the sources of his information, he has properly adverted to the order made by the House of Commons in 1805, for returns from the several dioceses in Ireland, and to the instructions sent by Earl Spencer by his Majesty's command in 1806 to the Lord-lieutenant, empowering him to obtain from the bishops a particular account of the present state of the Established Church of Ireland: subjoining also a list of the several queries which were addressed, by virtue of this order, to the bishops in their respective provinces. The answers to these questions being found to contain many valuable remarks, the House of Commons ordered in 1807 that they should be printed; and this document has furnished Mr. C. with a multitude of particulars which must be regarded as authentic.

Mention is also made of the publications which have preceded the work before us, in illustrating the Topography of Ireland, viz. *The Post-Chaise Companion; or Traveller's Directory through Ireland*, printed at Dublin in 8vo., 1786; — *The Hibernian Gazetteer*, &c., by Wm. Wenman Seward, Esq., Dublin, 1789; — *The Topographia Hibernia*, by the same gentleman, Dublin, 1797, 4to.; — and *Memoir of a Map of Ireland*, by the Rev. Dr. Beaufort; which last, as Mr. Carlisle remarks, 'under this modest title, contains a succinct account of the civil and ecclesiastical state of Ireland, and an index of all the places which appear on the map.' In the compilation of a Dictionary like the present, the index of Dr. Beaufort must have been of singular use; and we cannot, on this occasion, abstain from expressing a wish that Mr. C. had formed a map on the plan of that of Dr. B., (which he calls 'truly original,') for the illustration of his own volume, the value of which would have been much improved by this addition. On former occasions, we have adverted to this desideratum; and we should be happy to find the author availing himself of the hint in a subsequent edition.

Though pains have been taken to obtain information on the state of the poor, and on the amount of the population of

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[*] See M. R., Vol. lvi., N. S., p. 415.; and Vol. lxxi., p. 406.

Ireland, Mr. Carlisle has not been able to give statements on these subjects with the precision with which they appear in his Dictionaries of England and Wales: but he has accomplished all that was in his power. He tells us that 'the orthography of the names of parishes has been determined by a careful comparison of the Diocesan Returns, Dr. Beaufort's Memoir, and other topographical books.'

The civil and ecclesiastical divisions of Ireland being very imperfectly understood on this side of the Irish Channel, Mr. C. has subjoined a sketch of both, which we shall quote:

'As the reader may require an explanation of that part of the work which relates to the *Provinces*, it is proper to mention, that Ireland is divided, with respect to its civil or political distinctions, into the four provinces of *Ulster*, *Leinster*, *Connaught*, and *Munster*, which are subdived into thirty-two counties, in the following manner:

'The province of *Ulster* comprises the nine northern counties, being those of Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Donnegal, Down, Fermanagh, Londonderry, Monaghan, and Tyrone. Together with the great body of water, *Lough Neagh*, which, according to Dr. Beaufort, covers 58,200 acres.

'The province of *Leinster* comprises the twelve eastern counties, being Carlow, Dublin, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's County, Longford, Louth, Meath, Queen's County, West Meath, Wexford and Wicklow.

'The province of *Connaught* comprises the five western counties, being Galway, Leitrim, Mayo, Roscommon, and Sligo.

'The province of *Munster* comprises the six southern counties, being Clare, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford.

'With respect to its Church Establishment, Ireland is divided into the four Provinces of *Armagh*, *Dublin*, *Cashel*, and *Tuam*. An archbishop presides over each. These provinces are subdivided into thirty-two dioceses, which are united or consolidated under eighteen bishops, in the following order: — The Archbishop of *Armagh*, who is *Lord Primate and Metropolitan of all Ireland*, presides over the eight suffragan Bishops of Ardagh, Clogher, Derry, Down and Connor, Dromore, Kilmore, Meath *, and Raphoe, in the northern province.

'The Archbishop of *Dublin*, who is *Lord Primate of Ireland*, presides over the three suffragan Bishops of Kildare, Leighlin and Ferns, and Ossory, in the Eastern Province.

'The Archbishop of *Cashel*, who is *Lord Primate of Munster*, presides over the five suffragan Bishops of Cloyne, Cork and Ross, Killaloe and Kilfenora, Limerick and Ardfert and Aghadoe, Waterford and Lismore, in the southern province.

'* The Bishop of Meath has precedence of all bishops, and next to him the Bishop of Kildare. The other bishops take place according to the date of their consecration.'

'The Archbishop of *Tuam*, who is *Lord Primate of Connaught*, presides over the three suffragan Bishops of Clonfert and Kilmacduagh, Elphin, and Killala and Achonry, in the western province.

'The number of deaneries in this kingdom is thirty-three, and of archdeaconries thirty-four. But the archdeacons, according to Dr. Beaufort, have not a visitatorial jurisdiction: the government of the Church of Ireland, which is in most things conformable to that of England, differing with respect to visitations: for in Ireland, the bishops hold a visitation annually, and the archbishop visits his suffragans every third year.

'When the *Province* therefore is mentioned, in succession to the *County*, it is to be understood with reference to the civil jurisdiction. And, on the other hand, when the *Province* is noticed, in its order with the *Diocese*, it applies to the Established Church.'

As to distances and bearings, the author states them from actual admeasurements, when they can be obtained; and when these were not to be procured, recourse has been had to measuring on the map, making due allowances. It is also observed, for the information of strangers, that eleven Irish miles are equal to fourteen English miles.

The state of the representation having been altered by the Union, an abstract from the act which passed in 1801 is given in Mr. Carlisle's preface; whence it appears that four Lords Spiritual of Ireland, by rotation of Sessions, and twenty-eight Lords Temporal, elected for life by the peers of that country, are to be added to the Imperial House of Lords; and a hundred commoners to be chosen to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

To the preface, Mr. C. has subjoined a convenient Glossary, or Explanation of some of those Irish Words which most frequently occur in composition, with the Names of Places; and, in a tabular form, an Abstract of the Ecclesiastical Establishment of Ireland, in the Year 1807. Omitting the divisions into Provinces and Dioceses, we shall mention the grand results. It appears from this abstract that Ireland contains 1181 benefices, 476 unions, 1057 churches, 238 benefices *without* churches, 456 glebe-houses, 725 benefices *without* glebe houses, 830 benefices *with* glebes, 351 benefices *without* glebes, 589 incumbents actually resident on their respective benefices, 140 incumbents who have no houses in their parishes, but who live sufficiently near to discharge the duties, 279 incumbents who reside on their livings, 87 incumbents who are absent *with* permission, 26 incumbents who are absent *without* permission, 21 vacant livings, 31 sinecures, and 51 impropriations. — We have quoted this enumeration to enable our readers to judge of the state of the Irish Protestant church, which is differently circumstanced from that of the English establishment, and which certainly merits the attention of Government. In districts in which Protestant congregations assemble, it would be unpardonable not to furnish clergymen with glebe-houses, or parsonages: but in Catholic districts, where the Protestant clergyman cannot procure even a solitary individual to join with him in devotion, (whom he can address, after the manner of Swift, with "Dearly beloved Roger," &c.,) the church and the glebe-house are, for the present, useless. It is, however, always important to be furnished with facts, the knowlege of which is very necessary when the application of remedies is in contemplation.

As the articles of this dictionary are for the most part constructed on a similar plan, a single specimen of Mr. Carlisle's manner may suffice, especially if we select his account of one of the principal cities of Ireland, which has some peculiar traits:

'CORK, within the county of the city of Cork, and province of Munster: a city in which are the following parishes, St. *Finbarry's*, the cathedral and parish church; St. *Ann's Shandon*; St. *Mary's Shandon*; St. *Nicholas*; St. *Paul's*; St. *Peter's*; and the *Holy Trinity*.

'Cork is in the diocese of Cork and province of Cashel. It is 124¼ miles S. W. from Dublin. The fairs are holden on the day after Trinity Sunday, and on the first of October. It has six post-days in the week. This city sends two members to Parliament. The magistrates are a Mayor, two Sheriffs, a Recorder, Deputy-recorder, Town-clerk, Common-speaker, Sword-bearer, Gentleman Serjeant at Mace, and two City Chaplains. The military officers are a Governor, Lieutenant-governor, and Town-major. It is situate on the river Lee, and is esteemed the second city in Ireland. But now having a royal dock-yard near it and other military arsenals, to which being added the conveniences of its local situation, and the wealth and enterprize of its inhabitants, its future progress is rendered incalculable. The Assizes are holden here. The harbour of Cork is so formed, according to Dr. Beaufort, as to contain an immense number of ships in complete security. And the banks of it, being adorned with villas and plantations, present a most agreeable and cheerful landscape. Vessels of 120 tons go up to the city quays, but the large ships lie at *Passage, West*, a few miles lower down. The mouth of the harbour is protected by *Carlisle* Fort, the date of whose construction is pointed out by the name *. This city is the great mart of the south of Ireland. The principal articles of its export-trade are beef and butter, together with a great quantity of corn and some linen. — The Honourable and Right Rev. Thomas St. Laurence, D.D., Lord Bishop in 1807.—The foundation of the

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* This information is too vague for a dictionary, since it obliges the reader to turn to another book. Lord Carlisle commenced his administration in 1781, and resigned in the following year. — *Rev.*

bishoprick of Cork is placed in the seventh century: that of Ross
unknown; they were united by Queen Elizabeth, in 1586; they a
both contained in the county of Cork, and are partly intermixe
The diocese of Cork is 58 miles long from east to west, and abo
13 miles broad. The length of the principal part of Ross is
miles from east to west, and the breadth 6 miles; the detached pa
of it, in the mountains of Bear and Bantry, is about the same lengt
but not more than 4 miles broad. The whole Union is about 65 mi
by 17. The chapters of these dioceses consist each of a Dean, a Pr
centor, a Chancellor, a Treasurer, and an Archdeacon; there a
besides 12 prebendaries in Cork and 5 in Ross. The cathedral
St. Finbarry is a plain modern church. Near it stands the bisho
palace, a large new house, built but a few years, by the late bish
Dr. Mann. It is 50 miles from the city of Cork to the remote
parts of Ross. — "St. Barr, Barror, or Finbar, but by his paren
named Lochan, was of the race of Ibriunratha; he flourished abo
the year 600, and built an abbey which, in after time, was call
the Abbey of St. Barr, or Finbar; this foundation is by some plac
A.D. 606. This abbey was founded near Lough-eire, which
generally supposed to be that particular hollow in which a great pa
of the city of Cork stands. St. Barr died at Cloyne, but was i
terred in his own church, where his bones were afterwards deposit
in a silver shrine; his festival is holden on the 25th of Septembe
In 1134, this abbey was refounded, for Regular Canons following t
rule of St. Augustine, under the invocation of St John the Bapti
by Cormac, King of Munster, or, as some write, King of Desmon
The monks of this abbey erected the first salmon weirs on the riv
Lee, near the city of Cork. The remains of this building we
totally demolished about the year 1745. — Dermot Mac Cart
Reagh founded a monastery, A.D. 1214, for Conventual Franciscan
and dedicated it to the Virgin Mary. This building, which sto
on the north side of the city, is now entirely demolished. — T
Dominican Friary, called the Abbey of St. Mary of the Island, w
founded in the year 1229. This house, which stood in an islan
called Cross Green, on the south side of the town, is now entire
demolished. A monastery was founded, on the south side of t
city, in the reign of King Edward the First, for friars following t
rule of St. Augustine. Of this building the steeple, which is
feet high, and the walls of the church, still remain; the east windo
the only one in the choir, was truly magnificent, and measured
feet in height, and 15 in breadth; the whole erection was convert
into a sugar-house, and is now called the Red Abbey.—Dr. Bourk
is the only author who mentions the house for White Friars. — T
nunnery of St. John the Baptist, of which there are now no remain
was situated near the present market-house, and the site was acc
dentally discovered in digging up some old tombs. — There was
preceptory of the Knights Templars in this town, for we find th
William le Chaplain was the master of Cork about 1292. — Th
priory of St. Stephen was founded in the south suburbs of this ci
for the support of lepers, and Edward Henry was keeper of i
A.D. 1295. This priory, when suppressed, was granted to the cit

of Cork, and about the year 1674 an hospital for poor chilldren, now called The Blue Coat Hospital, was erected on the ancient site."—*Archdall's Monast. Hibern., pp. 62. et seq.*'

On this extract, it is obvious to remark that the notices of objects which no longer remain, but which time has swept away, might have been shortened, to make room for a fuller account of the actual state of Cork, including a detail of particulars usually found in Gazetteers; such as the number of streets and houses, and a rough guess (if nothing better can be obtained) of its population. We may excuse Mr. Carlisle for being seduced by the amiable impulse of friendship to record the gallant conduct of Captain Parker, though we have not deemed it necessary to transcribe his detail: but, when he adverted to modern history, he ought, for the instruction of his readers, to have told more than he has communicated. We trust that he will excuse this hint, and not forget it when he prepares for a second edition.

Under the article *Killarney*, we presumed that some details would have been given respecting the sublimely picturesque landscapes in that vicinity, especially as "Weld's Illustrations of the Scenery of Killarney" are enumerated among the books which the author professes to have consulted: but, instead of having such expectations gratified, we are dismissed with the frigid and meagre notification that the vicarage of Killarney 'is *situate*' (which word uniformly occurs for *situated*) 'near the beautiful lake of *Loch Lean*, or *the Lake of Killarney*, the boast and pride of Ireland'!

We shall advert to one article more; viz. that of the *Giants' Causeway*. For an explanation of this stupendous natural phænomenon, Mr. C. refers his readers to an account given by Dr. Pocock in the 48th Vol. of the Philosophical Transactions; not reflecting that we have since had much more correct and scientific details of the basaltic columns of Staffa and the Giants' Causeway. He might have consulted with advantage the memoirs of Dr. Richardson on this subject, in the Transactions of the Dublin Academy. Objects of natural history will occasionally present themselves to the topographical surveyor; and he should describe them with philosophical correctness according to the most recent discoveries, and not refer to obsolete science. Mr. Carlisle's merit is so conspicuous that it will not be materially injured by a few *buts*.

To the title-page, this memorandum is subjoined: 'N. B. This volume being complete in itself is sold separately: but it is also intended to form a *third* volume to the Dictionary of England recently published by the same author.'

ART. III. *A Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, and of the Islands in the British Seas;* exhibiting the Names of the several Cities, Royal Burghs, Parishes, Villages, and Islands, with the Shire, and Division of the Shire, in which they are situate;—the Stipend of each Benefice, the present Condition of the Manse and Church, the Extent of the Glebe, the Patrons, and the Presbytery and Synod to which they respectively belong;—the resident Population, according to the Returns made to Parliament in 1801, and also in 1811;—the Distance and Bearing of every Place from the nearest Post-Office, and of the Post-Offices from the Metropolis;—Markets and Fairs;—Members of Parliament and Corporations;—Parochial Schools, and Schools established by the Society for Propagating Christian Knowlege;—Circuit-Courts of Justiciary. To which are added, the Quality of the Soil, and the State of Agriculture, Roads, Bridges, Ferries, and Canals, and a Variety of Historical Information, Subjects of Antiquity, Monastic Foundations, and peculiar Customs. Compiled from the most authentic Documents, and arranged in alphabetical Order. Being a Continuation of the Topography of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. By Nicholas Carlisle, Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries of London, and Assistant Librarian to His Majesty. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. to Subscribers. 5l. 5s. to Non-subscribers. Nicol and Son. 1813.

WE now congratulate Mr. Carlisle on the successful termination of his labours; which, so honourably for himself, and so usefully for the public, have been perseveringly exerted in the topographical delineation of every portion of the United Kingdom. It often happens, in long and arduous undertakings, that the spirit and energy which were exhibited at the beginning evaporate in the progress; and that, after the commencement has been executed to admiration, "*extremum actum, tanquam ab inerti poeta, esse neglectum.*" Not so Mr. Carlisle. If that be possible, he finishes better than he began, and shews himself intitled to be dismissed with applause. Owing to the very ample materials furnished by Sir John Sinclair in his Statistical Account of Scotland, Mr. C. has been enabled to be more minute, accurate, and various in his present details, than in his account of Ireland, which is in want of a Sir John Sinclair, seconded by the exertions of a learned and inquisitive parochial clergy, to produce such a statistical elucidation as the Baronet has supplied in his 21 vols. on Scotland: of which it may be confidently pronounced, "That no publication, of equal importance and curiosity, has appeared in Great Britain, since Doomsday-Book, and that it stands unrivalled for extent of useful information." Mr. Chalmers's Caledonia, the County-Reports, and other works, have also been consulted with advantage.

An appropriate and very instructive preface is affixed to these volumes, in which many particulars relative to North Britain are explained: but, as Mr. C. is a very minute ecclesiastical reporter, we were rather surprized at not finding, in this part, a more amplified delineation of the constitution of the church of Scotland. In his preliminary discourse, the author arranges his matter under three general heads, treating '1st, Of the Manner and Period when the Crown of Scotland was merged in that of England, and of the Union of the two Kingdoms, by the Name of Great Britain. 2dly, Of the Method adopted to obtain accurate Information. 3dly, Of the general Arrangement and Execution of the present Work.' On the first head, we shall merely remark that the historical sketch appears to be correct; and on the second that it affords a similar specimen of unwearied industry with the other portions of the author's labours: but on the third department of his preface we must dwell rather more. 'The *orthography* of the name of each parish is given from an examination of the population-returns made to Parliament, in the years 1801 and 1811, compared with the Statistical Account, and sundry topographical histories, so that here mistakes are not likely to occur.' Mr. C. next adverts to the change which has taken place in the ecclesiastical government of Scotland from Episcopacy to the Presbyterian form: but, though he notices the alteration, he adheres to the use of words that are not at present strictly proper, for which he makes an apology:

> 'He has constantly given to each benefice the appellation of Rectory, Vicarage, or Chaplainry, a designation which is disused by the present Presbyterian ministers. He has been enabled to denote this circumstance from a copy of *Bagimont*'s Roll*, which was specially procured for him from the *Advocates' Library*, by the kindness of Mr. *Napier*; and he was induced, independent of the great worth and curiosity of that Roll, to preserve the distinction in compliance with history, and the several learned writers who, in treating of ecclesiastical affairs, have studiously retained those titles. In further apology for introducing the appellation, he remarks, that frequent mention of allowance for "*vicarage*" is made by the ministers themselves in the *Statistical Account*, which would seem to render it consistent; and in the more formal Returns to the *Teind Court* so late as the year 1812, the claims of *vicarage* and *vicarage teind (tithe)* are repeatedly enumerated.'

As a mere matter of record, or calculating on a return of the episcopal government, this notice might be allowable: but, as

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'* "*The auld Taxation of Bagimont*" is often referred to by the Scotish Statutes, as an adequate measure of the true value of ecclesiastical benefices. He flourished in the 13th century.'

things now are, the terms *Rectory* and *Vicarage* do not convey ideas which mark the situation of the incumbent. By what follows, it will appear that the provision for the clergy of the church of Scotland is different from that which is made for the established clergy in England:

'On the final establishment of the *Presbyterian church*, the benefices were so poor, that few persons of education would dedicate themselves to the ministry. Various circumstances had co-operated to occasion this diminution in the property of the church. Before the demise of *James the Fifth*, the abbots and bishops adopted the practice of relinquishing some of their privileges and property, to some powerful baron, to protect their rights against violence, by bonds of *man-rent* *; and in March 1596, it was calculated that, of the nine hundred churches in Scotland, there were then four hundred without ministers or readers; that is, at the end of forty years after the *Reformation* began: the whole estates of the ancient church having been appropriated by the nobles, before any establishment could be made for the reformed clergy.

'In 1617, an attempt was made to give permanent relief to "the ministery, who had been keeped in poverty, without being able, fruitfully, to travel in their charges." Parliamentary commissioners were now appointed to plant churches, and to modify stipends, by a fair application of the wasted teinds. The lowest stipend was, by this commission, fixed at five chalders of victual, or 500 merks, *Scotch*, (25l. 15s. 6½d. *sterling*,) which were equal to the highest stipend that had been proposed by the ministers themselves in 1581. But this authority soon expired without being able to accomplish its purposes; and a new commission was granted in 1621, with similar powers, which were executed with similar inefficiency.

'In 1633, when the tithes were transferred to the landholders, the *minimum* was raised to 800 merks, or eight chalders of victual, and the *maximum* was left undefined.

'From the *Union* in 1707, to 1738, there appear to have been no augmentations. The first application for a second augmentation was made in 1742, and 53 augmentations were soon after applied for and obtained. The year 1750 may be deemed the late commencement of the prosperity of Scotland, and the augmentations of the ministers' stipends kept pace with the gradual advance of every order in the state.'

The author proceeds to detail the subsequent relief which has been extended to the ministers of the church of Scotland, and to specify the progress which has been made under an act passed June 15th, 1810, for augmenting parochial stipends to the value of 150l. sterling at least. Having obtained from the Teind-office the lists of the several benefices which were made out, as the act required, he has placed this subject in a clear light; and in order to constitute, as it were, a *Liber Regis* for Scotland, the magnitude of the glebes and the patrons of the several benefices are inserted.

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* This is defined in the glossary to be 'homage made to a superior; — the power of a superior, especially in respect of the number of kinsmen and vassals whom he could bring into the field; — a bond or engagement to a superior, to support him in all his quarrels, and to appear in arms at his call.'

As he had done in his Topography of England, Mr. C. follows the authority of the returns to Parliament on the subject of population; and he states that of Scotland, in 1801, to have been 1,650,000, and in 1811 to have been 1,860,000 persons, which is an increase of 210,000 in ten years.

Provision for the poor in Scotland is different from that which is obtained by the poor's rates in England. In the Presbyterian church, charity and piety are so united that the levy of a heavy tax is superseded; and Mr. Carlisle informs us that the members of the episcopal congregations support their own poor.

On the size of Scotland, it is remarked that, 'with its islands, it is about equal to Ireland in area, and is half as large as England and Wales. But in computing the area of Scotland in *English* square miles, it is right to mention, that the *Scotish* mile is 5952 *English* feet, or, compared with the *English* mile, as 9 to 8: but it is rapidly falling into disuse.'

Not only has Mr C. consulted the best authorities on the subjects of post-office towns, markets, fairs, royal burghs, &c, but he has introduced a variety of information on points of history, antiquity, and peculiar customs; and so ample have been his materials, that he has been enabled to give the magnitude of the several parishes, with an account of the quality of the soil and the present state of agriculture. Here he takes an opportunity of adverting to circumstances which, in concurrence with the ungenial nature of the climate and the inequalities of the soil, tend to obstruct the exertions of the farmer; among which he specifies the mode of granting leases on the life of a single individual, the mode of assessing the teinds, and the claim of *thirlage*, in some districts: which is defined to be 'that servitude by which lands are astricted or *thirled* to a particular mill, to which the possessor must carry the growth of the adstricted land to be ground, for the payment of such duties as are either expressed or implied in the constitution of the right.'

Mr. Carlisle also enlarges on the improvement which Scotland has undergone since the rebellion, by the application of a portion of the revenues of the forfeited estates towards the construction of roads and bridges; and he does not omit to point out the exertions which have been made by the Highland Society for the improvement of the fisheries, as well as by the parliamentary commissioners for Highland roads and bridges, and for executing that grand work *the Caledonian Canal.* It is stated that 584 miles are finished by the road committee, or now in execution; and on the subject of the canal, after some extracts from the reports of the commissioners, it is added:

> 'A very considerable portion of this *great national work* is already finished, and it may reasonably be expected, that a free intercourse between the *German* and *Atlantic Oceans* will be effected in about five years from the present time (1813), and ultimately confirm the most ardent wishes and endeavours of the patriotic promoters and managers of it. The expence of the *canal,* up to June 1812, appears to have been about 400,000l., and there would be no reason to expect that the original estimate of 500,000l., would be much exceeded, had not the increasing price of labour, and all commodities, since 1803, affected this work in common with all others, so that 700,000l. (if finally the cost should be so much) can scarcely be deemed a real exceeding of the estimate. The scale of this national canal, and consequently of its *locks,* is unexampled, being calculated for the passage of large frigates: eight of those locks being joined together, near Fort William, form a mass of masonry 600 yards in length.'

It cannot be supposed that Mr. C. would overlook the advantages which the population of Scotland has eminently enjoyed from the establishment of parochial schools, which, by contributing to enlighten the nation, have promoted its virtue but, having on former occasions remarked this feature of the northern part of Great Britain, we shall not resume the subject in this place. — Before we quit Mr. Carlisle's preface, we must notice his apology for incorporating the account of the British isles with the Topography of Scotland; and certainly had not the reader been apprized of the amalgamation, he would not have expected to find details of the islands of Alderney, Guernsey, Jersey, Sark, Scilly, and Man, included in an alphabetical arrangement of Scotish towns and villages The author says that he has been induced, in these volumes which close his labours, to make such aukward insertions because the places 'are too minute to constitute a separate publication.' Rather than pass them over unnoticed, Mr. C has properly decided on inserting them here: but, in a future edition of his Topography of the United Kingdom, we should advise him to transfer the articles of Guernsey, Jersey, &c., to his Dictionary of England; preserving those which relate to the Orkney, Shetland, and the Western Isles, as appendages to Scotland.

In our announces of the former volumes, we presented our readers with a specimen, from the body of the work, of Mr. Car-

Mr. Carlisle's mode of execution; and he may plead a kind of prescriptive right to a similar compliment on the present occasion, especially as in no part of his labours he appears to more advantage. At random, then, we pounce down on the following article, which we do not like the worse because it reminds us of the *chef d'œuvre* of our tragic muse:

' *Glammis*, in the shire of *Forfar*: formerly a vicarage, the stipend of which, in 1811, was 58l. 6s. 8d. in money, 72 bolls of meal, and 72 bolls of barley: the manse is in decent repair: the glebe contains rather more than 6½ acres: patron, the Earl of Strathmore: the church is in good condition. It is in the presbytery of Forfar, and synod of Angus and Mearns. The resident population of this parish, in 1801, (comprising the villages of Arnefoul, Cotter-town of Drumglye, Cotter-town of Hayston, Glammis, Mill-town of Glan-Ogilvie, Nether Handeck, and the new town of Glammis,) was 1934, and in 1811, was 1933. It is 52 miles N. from Edinburgh. A general post-office is established here. The fairs are holden on the first Wednesday of May, and on the first Wednesday after the 26th of May, and the first Wednesday after the 22d of November. This parish is about twelve miles in length, and from one to five miles in breadth: it occupies the middle of the fertile valley of *Strathmore*, and part of the *Sidlaw Hills*, which are in some places rocky, though of inconsiderable height: the soil is, in general, good and fruitful; and improvements in agriculture are carried on with ardour and success, especially since the discovery of marle. The scarcity of fuel is the greatest disadvantage under which the parish labours. The air is moist, but not unhealthy. It is watered by the *Dean*, the *Kerbet*, and the burn of *Glammis*, all of which abound with fine red trout. There are several quarries of excellent free-stone and grey slate. The principal proprietors of the parish are, the Earl of Strathmore, whose estate contains about 7000 acres, of which about 1200 are thriving plantations; and Lord Douglas, whose estate contains about 3000 acres. The school is very flourishing, under the conduct of a gentleman who is eminent in his profession, and whose salary, and perquisites, amount to about 50l. sterling, together with a good house, which affords spacious accommodation for boarders. A few *services* are still required of the tenants. The principal manufacture is that of yarn, and linen-cloth. The venerable *castle of Glammis*, the property of the ancient and noble family of *Bowes* Earl of Strathmore, and their chief seat in Scotland, is of very ancient date, and was originally a royal residence: in 1372, it was granted by *Robert* the Second to the *Comes de Lyon*, his special favourite; who, not long after, received his daughter in marriage: great alterations and additions were made to this castle by *Patrick* Earl of *Kinghorn*, under the direction, it is said, of *Inigo Jones*: it is pleasantly situate on the banks of the river *Dean*, commanding an extensive prospect of the beautiful vale of *Strathmore*, from which its noble owner takes the title of *Earl*; and, from the palace itself, his second title of *Baron*. Mr. *Grose* has preserved two views of it. In the court before the minister's house, is an obelisk, on which is engraven a cross and diverse figures, that are said to allude to the murder of King *Malcolm* the Second, and the deaths of the murderers; with whom, in attempting to cross the lake of Forfar, then slightly frozen over, the ice broke, and they were drowned. This obelisk is described and engraven in Mr. *Pennant*'s Tour. Divers weapons, with some brass vessels, which were discovered in draining that lake, are shewn in the castle. About a mile from Glammis, near a place called *Cossans*, is another curious obelisk, commonly called *St. Orland's Stone*; the symbols on which have been thought to represent the officers of justice in pursuit of the murderers of Malcolm. About two miles south-west, on the summit of a hill, are the vestiges of an ancient fortification, which is known by the name of *Dencon Castle*: it is thought to have been designed for a place of retreat in times of danger. It is encompassed with a wall, supposed to have been 27 feet high and 30 broad. There are two entrances, one to the south-east, and another to the north-west. The whole circumference is about 340 yards. There are evident traces of buildings, in the intermediate space; and there might have been a fountain on the top, as is generally reported. *Macbeth* says,

' " By *Sinel's* death I know I am *Thane of Glamis.*" '

Under the article YARROW, in the shire of *Selkirk*, which is very copious, we have these particulars:

' *Mary Scott*, " the Flower of Yarrow," so highly celebrated in song, was a native of this parish. According to tradition, she was the daughter of *Walter Scott*, Esq. of *Dryhope*, and was esteemed the fairest and most handsome woman in the parish: hence she had many suitors, who solicited the honor of a matrimonial alliance with her: in preference to all other candidates, she gave her hand to *Gilbert Scott*, of *Harden*; from this alliance there sprang a daughter, who was afterwards married to the eldest son of the baronet of *Stobs*, commonly called " *Gibby* with the Golden Garters:" from them are descended the present Sir *William Elliot*, of *Stobs*, and the late Lord *Heathfield*, the brave defender of *Gibraltar*. There is a curious circumstance relating to their marriage-contract, which strongly marks the predatory spirit of the times: finding it inconvenient to take his wife home, *Gibby* besought his father-in-law to maintain her for some time; with this request he complied, upon condition that he was to receive, for her board, " *the plunder of the first harvest-moon*:" a most singular compact, and highly characteristic of the licentiousness and barbarity of the age in which it was made. The parish also gave birth to a famous military character, Colonel *William Russel*, of *Ashysteel*, who signalized himself so gallantly at the capture of *Manilla*. The *Yarrow*, that sweet and pastoral stream, has often been celebrated in Scotish song; and sometimes the plaintive and sympathizing muse hath

' " Mourn'd on *Yarrow's banks* the widow'd maid." '

' Burns, in his *Address to the Shade of Thomson*, emphatically exclaims:

' " While maniac Winter rages o'er
The hills, whence *classic Yarrow* flows;
Rousing the turbid torrent's roar,
Or sweeping wild a waste of snows." '

The parish of Yarrow is eight miles west from Selkirk, about 18 miles in length, 16 miles at its greatest breadth, and is calculated to contain 60,000 acres, very little of which is inclosed. Its resident population in 1801 was 2116, but in 1811 was reduced to 1225.

These extracts, which are fair samples of the articles contained in the volumes, shew that Mr. C. has been richly supplied with materials, and that the accounts of places are as minute as they could be expected to be in a work of this kind.

Since the islands of the British seas are here brought under our notice, we must not altogether pass them over in silence: but, as we have not much room to spare, we shall exhibit only a part of the article on the

' Scilly Islands. These are a cluster of islands, situate at the western entrance of the *English Channel*, and at the distance of 30 miles W. S. W. from *the Land's End*, in Cornwall. Many of them are barren rocks; only six of the largest being inhabited, the resident population of which, in 1810, was 2375. The vallies are fertile, and well inclosed, and the climate is particularly salubrious. The coast abounds with fish, especially mackarel, pilchards, and ling. It is thought that all these islands anciently made but one; the highest headland of which, now called *Scilly* or *Sylleh*, i. e. *Flat Rocks dedicated to the Sun*, having some little islands scattered round it, imparted its name to its inferiors, and which is now applied to the whole group. It is also conjectured, that they were once joined to the county of Cornwall, and that their separation was occasioned by a great inundation of the sea, at a very remote period. They were called by the Greeks *Hesperides* and *Cassiterides*, from their *western* situation, and from their abounding with *tin*.—The language spoken here is a mixture of the west-country dialect with the common English.—There is only one clergyman in all the islands.—The inhabitants of *Scilly*, like those of *Jersey*, cannot be sued in any of the courts of *Westminster*, for any matter or cause arising within the same. Felonies, and matters criminal committed here, are ordered to be tried at *Launceston*; but the High Sheriff for the county of Cornwall has no authority in Scilly, except *by permission* of the Lord Proprietor.—The inhabitants pay neither malt-tax, land-tax, nor excise, and as there is no hereditary land, no person has a vote there for chusing members of Parliament, nor are they represented by any.—The Light-house on *St. Agnes* is in the latitude of 40° 53′ 30″ north. On the night of the 22d of October 1707, Admiral Sir Cloudesley Shovel was unfortunately lost upon the *Gilston Rock*, on his return from *Toulon*.'

On the nine years which Mr. Carlisle has spent in the execution of the whole of this most valuable work, he may well look back with much complacency and satisfaction; and we allow him to feel a national and honourable pride in the assertion 'that no empire can exhibit a publication similar to the *Six Topographical Volumes*, which comprehend a description *of every Parish in the British Dominions in Europe*.'

ART. IV. *The Ruminator:* containing a Series of Moral, Critical, and Sentimental Essays. By Sir Egerton Brydges, K. J., M. P. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

A MISCELLANEOUS collection of prose essays, interspersed with poetry, as is the case in these volumes, is so generally attractive, that we are predisposed to be entertained by the perusal of such a publication. Among too many readers, however, a disposition is apparent, when any new work of this kind is submitted to their inspection, to institute invidious comparisons between the merits of present and those of past periodical essayists. We are happy in not feeling conscious of any such bias on our judgment; and, while we are in the highest degree thankful to an Addison or a Johnson for their moral and pleasing instructions, we hope that we have some gratitude reserved for the various claims of their followers in the same interesting department of literature. Numerous, too, as have been these claimants on the attention and praise of their countrymen, we by no means consider the field of inquiry, even into the permanent subjects of such compositions, as wholly cultivated. On the contrary, while the gleaners, who succeeded to the harvest that was swept away by *the Spectator* and *the Rambler*, collected an ample produce, they have still left much for their successors. Pathos has not been exhausted by Mackenzie, nor have good sense and good humour worn themselves out in the service of *the Looker-on*. Manners and customs, it is obvious, are never-failing sources of novel observation to the periodical writer: but these, perhaps, are the least important topics which it is incumbent on him to discuss. While the perpetual allusions to the fashion of the times, whether in male or female society, have now become wearisome in *the Spectator*, the papers on more serious matters increase every day in value; for, certainly, no subsequent writer has altogether equalled Addison in the natural and impressive manner of exhibiting and recommending the sublimest truths. On religious subjects, his style is unrivalled, and leaves us nothing to regret,—in those papers especially which contain his beautiful paraphrases of the Psalms,—except their brevity and their rare occurrence.

The more laboured polish of the language of Johnson, and his nervous originality of thought, lend all the attractions of variety to his lucubrations, if they are read alternately with those of his great predecessor: but the manner of *the Rambler* has of late years been much more frequently the object of uniform imitation than that of *the Spectator*, in spite of *the Rambler*'s well-known recommendation of an original *. All our writers, indeed, of the present day, fall more or less into the latinized style of English composition; and, besides the sameness of this stiff and dignified mode of expression, the thought is too often inadequate in strength to support the pomp and weight of words in which it is enveloped. We could wish, therefore, for some attempts at the revival, or the imitation at least, of the simple and easy writing of our favourite essayist. — We must cease, however, to wish and to distinguish, or we shall incur the charge of that very querulousness and that disposition to unfair comparison, which we commenced with censuring. We are recalled by '*the Ruminator*.'

'The major part of these essays, (says the author,) as far as No. lxxiii., were first printed in the *Censura Literaria*, having been commenced in the fourth volume of that work, in January 1807, and continued to the tenth and last, in June 1809. The rest are principally by the author's friend, R. P. Gillies, Esq., the author of "Childe Alarique," except two, for which he is indebted to the eloquent pen of a very learned writer well known to the world, the Rev. Francis Wrangham; and two others, for which he here acknowledges his obligations to his kind friend, the Rev. Montagu Pennington, whose valuable contributions he had already received in the former part: in which also he here begs leave to repeat his warm thanks for the papers furnished to him by Capel Lofft, Esq., whose reputation is too far extended to require any eulogy from the author.'

We shall present to our readers the remarks which we have made in the perusal of these volumes, as they occurred to us; conceiving it to be unnecessary, if it were possible, to adopt any more regular plan in criticizing a publication of this nature. In an examination of "The Lay of the last Minstrel," the essayist observes: 'The beauties of this poem are to be seen in almost every page, while its faults (for it is not wholly exempt from defects) are thinly scattered over the surface, *rari nantes in gurgite vasto*, neither glaring nor offensive.' It is beyond the self-controul of our risible muscles for us to read this paragraph with becoming gravity. Not only the assertion, that the faults of Mr. Scott's first considerable poem are few and slight, must (we think) amuse even that gentleman himself, but still more the quotation which illustrates such a panegyric. It is precisely the same as that which was put by Fielding into the mouth of the supposed Grub-street critic on one of his burlesque tragedies: "You have indeed a few similes, — but they are very thin-sown,—*Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto.*"

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* Thus it is that the practice of men will ever have more force than their precepts.

We are not inclined (we regret to be obliged to confess it) to agree much better with the essayist in his eulogy on the picturesque powers of the author of the Farmer's Boy; an eulogy which occurs in the paper following that which we have just quoted: — but the passage immediately subjoined contains some observations, the spirit of which we highly approve, and which are expressed with elegance:

'The mind is surely the scene of action, which we are most interested in studying. When we compare its capacities with those of material power; when we know that in one minute it can perform journies and gain victories, which it would consume the whole lives of the most active travellers and the most able generals to execute, what more copious, what more important theme for delineation can we require? It is this consideration which elevates the study of ethics among the first in the scale of human knowledge; and as long as intellect is superior to matter, it must be classed in the highest rank of philosophy. Its nice and evanescent colours, which, seeming to leave much to conjecture, give to dull faculties an opportunity to call it shadowy and unsubstantial, are the very characteristics, which stamp its value.

'Never then let it be said, that the life of a person of genius affords no materials for biography, because it was passed in retirement and inaction. If there remain records of his mental occupations, if his opinions, his feelings, and the rainbow-like colours of his fancy can be remembered and properly told, they will contribute essentially to the best and most interesting department of human intelligence.'

We would only ask the author whether, on second thoughts, he would not have written the study of *Metaphysics*, for the study of *Ethics*, in the first paragraph?

In the discussion on the authenticity of Ossian's Poems, in which the opinion of the essayist leans to the affirmative, (that is, as far as the existence of *some* originals,) we find the following narrations:

'I have been told, by a lady now deceased, of high literary reputation, that the late Sir James Macdonald, elder brother of the Chief Baron, assured her, that he could repeat, when a lad, many of the poems translated by Macpherson in their original Erse. A similar assurance I received also myself from a surgeon in the navy, a native of the isle of Mull, who told me not only that he could repeat many of those poems, but that Macpherson had not selected, or perhaps met with, some of the finest of them; in particular one which is a dialogue between Ossian and a missionary, who was preaching the

Christian religion in the Highlands, which he said was the noblest poem he had ever known.'

Now it will be manifest that these stories (and a similar one is subjoined) depend on many circumstances, which we have not the means of ascertaining, for their importance in the controversy. Who the lady that vouched for the first fact may have been, we have no right to inquire, provided that we can rely on the present author's opinion of her judgment and accuracy: but, at all events, her evidence is only the copy of a record, and as such not of the highest value. Then, we must observe, the Chief Baron's brother *was a lad* when he could repeat these poems; and the knowlege *of a lad* is made to identify them with those which Macpherson translated! The surgeon, too, only assured the essayist that he *could* repeat these poems; and as to what follows about their merit, that is a surgical opinion, and nothing to the purpose. The same remarks are applicable to the Highland fisherman's praise in the story that succeeds; and to his wonder that Ossian had been translated. — On the whole, wide of the fact as we think *the Ruminator*'s remark is 'that the work betrays little if any imitation of those great *exemplaria Græca* with which the mind of every scholar must be filled,' we are inclined, although with considerable reservation as to the number and extent of the supposed originals, to admit the justice of his concluding observations: 'Probably in this, as in most things, the truth may lie in the middle. He' (Macpherson) 'found these songs *volitantes per ora virum* [*], defective and imperfect. He supplied those parts which were wanting, added, omitted, and filled up as he thought necessary; and has thus given a work to the world, of the merit of which *no greater proof can be required*, than that it has been translated into every modern language, and is admired and beautiful in them all.' On this appeal to popular opinion we shall only remark; "*Interdum vulgus rectum videt, est ubi peccat.*"

We are sorry to find at page 85. of Vol. i., a glaring instance of the *puff direct*, though it was only intended for the *puff oblique*; and we feel the more compelled to notice this, because it is far from the only example of the offence of *puffing* in '*the Ruminator.*' He allows his *correspondents* to say much too civil things to him: for example: 'Your Bath correspondent alludes to your juvenile production of Mary de Clifford. I have read that *elegant and affecting* tale more than once with renewed pleasure,' &c. &c. That the author, however, should be pleased with the commendation of his friends is perfectly natural; especially as he states himself, in more than one passage of this publication, to have been severely calumniated by his enemies. A sonnet occurs on this subject, at page 100., which we forbear to transcribe; not because it contains any thing censurable in the language and versification,—for, on the contrary, we admire them both, — but because we disapprove of the *public* expression (at all events) of the querulous sentiments of this poem; and because, from the remarks which follow it, we are led most sincerely to caution this author against any farther indulgence in excessive feeling. Let him depend on it, (and we could cite very many sad examples of the justice of our caution,) that this indulgence must end in a morbid sensibility of mind, a feverish irritation and unmanly tenderness of nature, which are the more ruinous as they spring from principles of which we may be justly proud. They are the most melancholy abuse of virtue; and the perpetual recurrence to the misfortunes and the maladies of a Collins, a Chatterton, a Burns, &c. &c., which is but too observable throughout these pages, convinces us that our suggestion is not superfluous. At the same time, we cordially agree with the writer in his strong reprobation of those unpitying judges, who coarsely censure the errors of such highly gifted but too often unfortunate beings; and that such stern censors of their poetical brethren should reckon among them any man of real genius is painful indeed to consider:—but it is one thing to calumniate, and to tread on, the fallen,

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[*] If so, he may be said to have "*shot them flying*;" and that he possessed a famous "*long bow*" is the opinion of many of the disputants in this question.

("Fallen, fallen, fallen from their high estate!")

and another to caution them, ere they fall, against laying open their secret feelings to a world in which they must be children, indeed, to expect general sympathy. We rather take the remark of Johnson on Cowley's complaint in this kinder sense, than as '*the Ruminator*' does in its severe interpretation. Surely when the critic says of the poem in quesion, "this met with the usual fortune of complaints, and seems to have excited more contempt than pity," we have no right to infer that he justified the opinion of the world. He rather wishes to prevent the unfortunate from shewing their miseries to unconcerned spectators; and the example of such a man as Cowley being so treated by the public, if strongly brought before the young poet who was just ready to vent his disappointments through the improper medium of the press, might perhaps save one out of a thousand from the injudicious exposure.

In an essay on the well-known passage in the twenty-second Iliad, in which Hector says of his expected meeting with Achilles,

'Ov

'Ου μέν πως νυν ἐστὶν ἀπὸ δρυὸς ὀυδ' ἀπὸ πέτρης.

. λ., the essayist records several expositions of the diffi- y, and subjoins his own: but we are not satisfied with any of n, and would venture to suggest a conjectural substitution which we really forget whether we have any authority) of in each place for ἀπὸ; which will, in our judgment, make simile as natural in expression as it is in idea. This obser- on will be sufficient for the scholar; who, by merely re- ing to the 126th line of Iliad X'., will be able to decide on justice of our conjecture.

t page 138. we have another sonnet, of the same plaintive ire with the last: but we shall consider our admonition as icient, and say no more on the subject; excepting, indeed, t we are bound by our duty to observe, that the prevailing t of '*the Ruminator*' is the want of variety. Of this fact author himself seems to have been conscious: but, unfa- rably for his own wider circulation, he has not acted on t consciousness.

Ve are presented with some extracts from Mrs. Carter's rrespondence in this Miscellany. When they were first lished in the *Censura Literaria*, which was previously to appearance of the "Correspondence," they must have been ects of interest and attraction: but to reprint them now, after publication of that work, savours of — what shall we say? ok-making? We fear that it is the only appropriate term. wever, they are not long; and, like almost all the rest of t vigorous writer's compositions, they eminently merit the der's attention.

Some remarks on Imprisonment for Debt are well conceived d expressed. The quotation from Johnson was perhaps un- cessary, but its benevolence and energy excuse it; and the ncluding eulogy on the supporters of the Debtor and Cre- or Bill is amply deserved by the Lords Moira and Holland. e so much approve, indeed, the spirit of the last panegyric, t we shall transcribe it:

> '— Let the virtuous spirit of Lord Holland recollect that he l add new laurels, to those acquired by his honourable pursuits, by new effort of his cultivated mind. It becomes a man like him, o adorns his station with the flowers of literary genius, thus to ad in the steps of his great uncle! These are the most grateful erings, which he can strew on his mighty relative's grave! I am ashamed to say this, in defiance of the opposition I feel to his litical attachments.'

The 'Traits in the Character of Gray the Poet' are worth rusing; and the paper 'On the Severity of Fashionable Criti- m' is not undeserving of the consideration of some of our contemporaries.

temporaries. The essay on 'Noble Authors,' though brief a
very imperfect, is animated; and in this quality of animati
the author would frequently excel, if he did not suffer his
dignant feelings to run away with him, and thus overcharge
pictures which he wishes to present faithfully to the view.

The 'Story of an Excentric Character' (No. 37. and seve
subsequent numbers) has very considerable interest; thou
the obscurity and reserve of the hero are become hackn
incidents in such narrations. The following verses have
merit of strong feeling, and, with some very trifling exc
tions, of natural and poetical expression:

1

"Soft is the fairy beam that plays
Within that eye's too mournful sight;
Yet dangerous is it still to gaze
Till my soul melts in fond delight.
O hide that lovely face,
In which entranc'd I trace
An angel's goodness with an angel's grace!

2.

"Tear the delusion from my view;
Soften no more my yielding heart;
Those features of celestial hue
Raptures too high for earth impart!
For this shall I adore
A few short hours; and then deplore
Thro' all my darkening days the transient pleasure o'er!

3.

"Yet cast that heavenly ray again
Upon my languishing desire;
And tho' the bliss be mix'd with pain,
Once more relume the rapturous fire!
The memory still
Of that delight will fill
My years of future gloom with many a melting thrill.

4.

"O why, adown that lovely cheek,
Steals, Ellen, the contagious tear?
Does it a doubt of Longford speak?
Is it the mark of love or fear?
O let me drink those drops divine,
And, as the compact thus I sign,
E'en tho' the poison kills, a moment think thee mine!

5.

"Upon my ravish'd ear bestow
The tones of that enchanting voice,

And from thy bosom's fountain throw
The treasures that my soul rejoice;
For tho' thy beauty charm,
Yet, lovelier than thy form,
Do gems of mental light thine inward spirit warm!

6.

" O let me fold thee in mine arms,
And press thee to this last embrace;
Forget one moment all alarms,
And ages in that moment trace;
Then if my destiny
For ever bids me fly,
The point of earthly bliss I taste before I die!"

The subjoined extract from the first essay of the second volume, though we meet with nothing particularly novel in the remarks which it contains, appears to us as favourable a specimen of the author's prose-composition as we can select; and we must confine the remainder of our critique to brief observations on detached faults and merits.

'Books are in general little more than transcripts of those which went before them, with a little difference of arrangement and combination: the same ingredients only poured into new vessels. Memory is the principal faculty which has been exercised in making them. When thoughts or images are brought forward, which have *originated* in the mind of the author, they will exhibit a freshness and vigour, that, even though they may be similar to such as have been produced by others, will make them interesting and valuable. There is all the difference, which there is between an original, and a copy, in painting. There may be the same outlines, the same figures and colours; but the difference can be better felt than expressed: one is faint, and cold, and dead; the other breathes and moves.

'It is idle to be quibbling about the definition of literary genius, and limiting it to one or two forms of excellence; every thing is genius, which is inspired by this living spirit. Nor is it confined alone to poetry, though in poetry its higher powers may be exhibited: still less is it narrowed to one or two tracks of poetry: though Dr. Darwin seemed strangely to think almost all the merit of that art was restrained to the representation of material objects. Elevated thoughts, and tender sentiments, when conveyed in congenial language, partake surely as much of the essence of this divine power, as the most brilliant imagery!

'I desire no more infallible test of genius, than that ardent manner, which, displaying the soul of the writer predominant over his language, communicates its own fire to the reader, and carries him along with it. He, who is characterized by this trait, gives an interest to every subject that he touches, and throws sparks of light on the dullest subject.'

The fault that pervades the manner as well as the matter of this writer will be seen by the observant reader of the foregoing extract

tract to be—repetition. Both his thoughts and his words occur too frequently in all their unconscious identity;—if, as disciples of Locke, we may use such an expression.

The Greek Alcaïcs of Mr. Capel Lofft, on Eton College, would not have passed without correction at that seat of learning, had they composed a sixth-form-exercise on leaving school. We cannot reconcile either our ears or our imaginations, to say nothing of critical or metrical objections, to such Grecian heroes as ΒΕΡΝΑΡΔΟϹ (for Mr. L. gives us the true capitals) and ϜΟΣΤΕΡΕΙΟϹ, Masters of Eton; or even to Καμδενιος, (for we cannot copy any more of Mr. L.'s great letters,) Ϝοχιος, and Χαταμος,—although so much more heroic characters. We recognize, however, something very respectable and very interesting in the devotion to literature, which seems with unceasing ardour to accompany Mr. Lofft through every period of his life. Some of his English poems, too, which are here presented to us, have a classical elegance about them; and we shall be well pleased to receive the comprehensive collection of Sonnets, (a style of composition in which Mr. L., by his sonnet on the death of Miss Caroline Symmons, would have shewn himself capable of excelling had he written no others,) which we are told by '*the Ruminator*' that Mr. Lofft is about to publish. It is to contain, we are informed, the most copious assemblage of compositions of this kind ever made, not only English, but both original and translations from the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and German. While we hail the promise of such an "Anthology," we would hint to the author the great possibility of feasting to a surfeit on sonnets; and we would also ask him whether the title of "*Laura*, or select Sonnets, and *Quatuorgaius*," (to say nothing of a little pedantry,) be the most appropriate designation for a work of so many-languaged a nature? We would, moreover, admonish Mr. L. that, in his additional line to Martial's celebrated epigram on 'A happy Life,'

'*Lætus præteriti;* POST *fata, felix,*'

he has woefully limped in his hendecasyllables, by running against a *post*, in the second half of the line.

Some of the most valuable papers of this work are those in which an attempt is made to revive the honours of forgotten English poets; and the extracts from Habington, a very spirited and harmonious poet of the reign of Charles the First, are creditable to the taste of the selector. Still more do we admire the passage from Sackville's Induction; although the Earl of Dorset cannot well be styled a forgotten author. Nor was it necessary to call the attention of all the present race of poetical readers to Drayton or to Browne. We are certainly becoming better acquainted with the poetry of our forefathers than our immediate predecessors seem to have been; and this is one symptom of improvement in our taste. A raciness and a vigour are displayed by these founders of English harmony, which will be of peculiar use to the student who has hitherto only reposed on the smoother verse of their followers. Drayton's verses to Browne, quoted at page 122. of the second volume, will be to some readers a surprizing specimen of the perfection to which the art of versification had been brought before the days of their exclusive favourites, Dryden and Pope. In fact, too much stress is laid on the later improvements in the *smoothness* of English verse. It was in the rich and varied harmony which Dryden introduced, that his principal merit consisted. Not only was "Waller *smooth,*" but many before him. — We are deviating, however, from our subject, and must return to *chew the cud* a little longer with the present essayist. In one of his ruminations, he calls our attention to Quarles's Emblems, and some other works of that quaint but far from original author. In another, we have a brief notice of Cowper's translation of Homer, justly placed at an immeasurable distance below that of his great rival. A fault committed by them both is mentioned, which indeed has often been stated before; the second syllable of Sperchīus is made short by both translators. — We have also a republication of Anstey's version of Gray's Elegy, which was scarcely necessary; though the version is one of the best of those "numbers numberless" which have appeared. The Epitaph, with the exception of the first line, is peculiarly happy.

An extract from Warburton's Correspondence with Hurd, a book of such very recent date, seems hardly admissible into a miscellany professing to be original. It is, however, difficult to say whether the extravagance of modern publications does not in some measure palliate the offence of those who favour us with selections from them, and thus (if they do not violate the laws of literary property) contribute to the general knowlege of valuable works.

We were much gratified by the eloquent tribute to the memory of Algernon Sydney, at page 164. of the second volume; and we confess that we contemplate the portrait of this illustrious patriot with nearly the same sensations of respect as those which '*the Ruminator*' describes himself to have felt when walking along the galleries of Penshurst, and looking at the stern countenance of Sydney in the seat of his ancestors.

The anecdote at page 170. of Vol. ii., in an essay on 'the Pleasures and Uses of Fancy,' of 'an eminent mathematician who could find no merit nor amusement in Virgil, because he could find no *proof* in him,' is a fair characteristic of the turn of mind which is produced by *exclusive* habits of mathematical study: but, generally speaking, the abstractions of the metaphysician are infinitely more favourable to a taste for the arts of imagination. Indeed, without some inquiry into the principles of the human mind, it is clear that we shall be unable to give a reason for the pleasure which we receive from beautiful passages of poetry; and, if this should be considered as unnecessary by the careless mass of readers, we shall even be deprived of much additional enjoyment, from wanting a full perception of the skill of the poet. — This, however, is opening a subject that would require a volume to illustrate it.

At page 184. we have some stanzas from the poem of "Childe Alarique:" but we have already offered our critique on that performance *. — In an essay on Posthumous Fame, we have much too high-flown a panegyric on Mr. Wordsworth. We are far from insensible to the great original powers of this writer: but, in the whole catalogue of excentric aberrations from sound and established taste, we know not any instance so striking as his poetical theory, and the examples by which he has supported it. Abounding in facilities for conveying pure and unmixed pleasure to his readers, he has chosen to debase his most natural passages with that sort of familiarity which is sure to "breed contempt;" and he has at times almost emasculated his understanding by a vain fondness for his own phantom of simplicity: "*Non illa priorum simplicitas.*"

We wish that '*the Ruminator*' would have attended more to the advice furnished by one of his correspondents, in the opening words of the subjoined sentence: but we cannot too strongly protest against the sweeping conclusion. What! are we to have no relief for our cares, no participation of our enjoyments, — our most secret cares, and our deepest enjoyments, — in *any* human breast? This must have been, assuredly, an unintentional or an idle generality of expression. 'There are secret stores of cherished thought which ought always *to be secret*; which we may partake indeed with the friendly paper on which they are arrested and fixed; but never, never, with *any* human being!' *Dii meliora piis.* — What follows is not unamusing; and the truth of the remark with which it ends should be generally felt and acknowleged: 'I am pleased with that expression attributed in the news-papers to Lord Wellington, that, if he thought even the hairs on his head were acquainted with any of his plans, he would shave them off and wear a wig. In the same narrative (which whether false or authentic it is needless for me to consider,) it is observed that Lord W. is always *frank* and cheerful among his brother officers; an example of frankness and reserve existing (as they almost invariably do) at one and the same time in a great character.'

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* See Review for March last.

In the essay 'on the Character of Sir William Jones,'—that "mind of ages in a single breast," as Wrangham nobly says,—his Farewell to the Muse is prettily translated: but the remarks on Rousseau want much revision. A perusal of the character of that extraordinary being, which we lately selected from the "Picture of French Literature *," would be of service to the essayist. — Number 100. contains some good observations on Johnson. Having alluded to his unfortunate fondness for victory in argument, which degenerated at times into a complete passion for contradiction, the author proceeds:

> 'But there was another circumstance which had a tendency to warp the justice of his sincere opinions. Early in life he had probably discovered the inclination of his own imagination to predominate dangerously over his reason. On this account he used every exertion to subdue it; to reduce it to the severest trammels of argumentation, and the most sober paths of mental employment. Hence he acquired a habit of preferring the lower departments of the muse; he best liked reasoning in verse; dry ethical couplets; and practical observations upon daily life.'

We acknowlege much justice in these reflections; and we think that they are not undeserving of the attention of those who, from feeling the predominant bias of their mind towards the exercise of the imagination, are apt to run into the contrary extreme, and labour to extinguish all their natural enthusiasm.

We shall leave '*the Ruminator*' exulting, in his 102d number, over the illustrious deeds of the noble family of Clifford, with which he claims honourable connection; only observing that it depends entirely on ourselves whether hereditary pride in the merits of our ancestors be the most pleasing or the most painful of sensations.

Art. V. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.* For the Year 1813.

[*Article concluded from p.* 79.]

ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS in PART I.

OBSERVATIONS of the Summer Solstice, 1812, *at the Royal Observatory.* By John Pond, Esq., Astronomer Royal. F.R.S.

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* See Appendix to Vol. lxxi. of the Monthly Review.

A Catalogue of North Polar Distances of some of the principal fixed Stars. By the Same.

Observation of the Winter Solstice of 1812, *with the Mural Circle, at Greenwich.* By the Same.

ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS in PART II.

Catalogue of North Polar Distances of eighty-four principal fixed Stars, deduced from Observations made with the Mural Circle at the Royal Observatory. By the Same.

Observations of the Summer Solstice, 1813, *with the Mural Circle, at the Royal Observatory.* By the Same.

We are here presented with the first series of observations which have been made with the new mural circle at Greenwich, and we are happy to find that this beautiful instrument is likely to possess that extreme degree of accuracy which the celebrity of the artist and the well known talents and experience of its original projector led us to anticipate. Dr. Maskelyne had long looked forwards with pleasure to the time at which he might commence a course of observations with this new circle, but unfortunately he did not live to see it completed; and it is now, therefore, from his successor, Mr. Pond, that astronomers are expecting the confirmation or correction of former observations, and the dependent results. We could have wished to have seen a description of this master-piece of art, before our attention had been called to its application: but this interesting communication has been reserved till the instrument can be completely finished; and probably it would have been as well to have waited the same time before the results of the observations themselves had been reported, since the final completion seems to be as necessary in the latter case as in the former:

'As it is intended,' says Mr. Pond, 'that a minute description of the mural circle lately erected at the Royal Observatory, when completely finished, shall be laid before the Royal Society, I think it unnecessary to accompany this communication with any other remarks on its construction, than such as are absolutely necessary to render the annexed observations intelligible; being only anxious to take an early opportunity of transmitting the result of the observations of the sun, made at the last summer solstice. For, notwithstanding the instrument was at that time in a very unfinished and imperfect state, I have reason to think, that the observations made with it were much more exact than could have been made with any other instrument hitherto constructed: the uncertainty of the result, as far as the instrument itself is concerned, does not, I believe, exceed a small fraction of a second; but I think it necessary to offer a few remarks on the elements of the computation, by which the result is obtained.

'The distance of the sun from the pole at the moment of the solstice, may either be considered as a simple arc, or as composed of two others, namely, the distance of the sun from the zenith, and the distance of the zenith from the pole. From the construction of instruments which take their point of departure from the position of a plumb-line or level, it is a general method to measure these two arcs separately; that is to say, the zenith distance of the sun is considered as the immediate object of investigation, and the remaining arc, or, as it is usually termed, the co-latitude of the place, (the knowledge of which is presumed,) is added to complete the polar distance. But in whatever way we consider the subject, it is evident that the sole object of the practical astronomer is to obtain by some mechanical means the measure of this total arc.

'The mural circle at Greenwich has neither level nor plumb-line, nor do I conceive that the least advantage could be derived from the application of either: its principle enables the observer to determine this total arc without any intermediate or zenith point; hence the co-latitude, the knowledge of which is so essential from the construction of other instruments, is in this case rather a question of curiosity than of absolute necessity.

'I find it, however, convenient (for reasons which I hope to have an opportunity of stating more at large in a future paper) to assume an intermediate point, which I call the zenith point, without being at all anxious to know whether it is really so or not; because I find myself possessed of the means of determining the position of this *imaginary* point of departure, on the instrument, to within the tenth of a second, a degree of precision, which I apprehend no level or plumb-line can ever be expected to equal.

'From this point of departure, I measure the distance of the sun to the southward, and of the pole to the northward, and the sum of these two measures is evidently the north polar distance of the sun, which in every method is the ultimate object to be attained.

'I have, as an example, annexed a computation of the same solstice obtained by direct measurement, from the pole, without the aid of the intermediate point above mentioned; and it will be seen that the results do not in this case differ above a quarter of a second from each other.

'There is indeed no other difference between these two methods but that, in the former case, the part of the arc Z P is obtained rather more accurately, by a great number of observations both before and after the solstice, than could be done in the short interval of time in which the solstice itself is observed.

'By sixty observations of γ draconis, of which only three differ so much as 1'' from the mean, it appears that the zenith point which I have assumed is 2', 18'', 64, south of the mean position of γ draconis for the beginning of the year 1812, which is the same quantity that is found by the observations with the zenith sector, 1811.'

We are anxious to see an illustration of the principle adopted to avoid the use of the plumb-line and level; which, we apprehend, if once well established, must be deemed an important improvement in astronomical observations: since we presume that it will be the means of avoiding those errors which have been, in some cases, suspected to arise from local attraction, and which, while the level and plumb-line are used for determining the point of departure, it is impossible to detect. Very little, however, can be said on this subject till we are furnished with the necessary data. In the mean-time, we are happy to find that it is the intention of the Astronomer-royal to avail himself of the extreme accuracy of his new instrument to examine Dr. Bradley's tables of refractions, which are suspected, both by the French and the English astronomers, to require some modification; and should Mr. Pond succeed in making the necessary corrections relative to this subject, he will doubtless render an essential service to the science of astronomy.

With regard to the mechanical part of the observations which form the contents of these papers, we cannot doubt that the author's attention and assiduity have been equal to that which the importance of the subject required: but we do not observe that complete degree of accuracy in the detail which we could have wished to have seen. Thus, for example, the obliquity of the ecliptic, as ascertained by direct measurement from *Polaris*, is stated to be 23° 27′ 52″,25, and, as drawn from the usual method, 23° 27′ 52″,10: agreeing with each other, as Mr. Pond states, within a quarter of a second. This latter, however, depends on assuming the arc Z P = 38° 31′ 21″,15; which, in the author's account of his observations of the winter-solstice, he assumes at 38° 31′ 21″,5: an alteration which he has been induced to make from the mean of 120 subsequent observations of Polaris. The summer-solstice, thus corrected, gives for the obliquity, January 1st, 1813, 23° 27′ 51″,5: whereas the same, as deduced from the observations of the winter-solstice, gives this obliquity only 23° 27′ 47″,35; differing from the former by nearly 4″, which the author calls 'a small discordance, that may be easily reconciled by a slight modification of Bradley's refractions, and to which principle it may perhaps ultimately be necessary to have recourse for its explanation.' In referring to the following summer-solstice, however, it seems that the original result require a still more important alteration; the correction of the sun's latitude having been taken + 0″,95, instead of — 0″,6 which reduces the original obliquity from 23° 27′ 52″, 25, t 23° 27′ 50″, 5, according to the author's statement: thoug we cannot find that either this or his other result, as draw from the usual observations, brings out precisely the abov quantity. Mr. Pond may term these *very small errors*, as h does in speaking of the latter, though it amounts to mor than a second and a half;—and as he does in his accou of the discordance of the winter and summer-solstices, thoug

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he makes it amount to nearly four seconds; — and as he does again in a correction of a second in the north polar distance of Procyon: — but, small as they may be, they will, if frequently repeated, tend very much to shake that confidence which we ought to repose in the observations and computations of the Astronomer-royal.

On the Light of the Cassegrainian Telescope, compared with that of the Gregorian. By Captain Henry Kater, Brigade-major. — This memoir relates to a subject of great moment in practical astronomy, and will no doubt engage the serious attention of all such observers as possess the means of repeating the experiments of the author. They are thus detailed:

'The Cassegrainian telescope, from its first invention to the present time, has generally been considered to be merely the Gregorian disguised, and to possess no other advantage over it than the capability of being made shorter with the same magnifying power. This opinion, joined to the inconvenience of its inverting the object, has caused it to be thrown aside, perhaps too hastily, and without a sufficient examination of its properties.

'As the experiments which I am about to detail may possibly lead to important conclusions, I shall perhaps be pardoned if I relate the circumstances which induced me to engage in them.

'A self-taught artist of the name of Crickmore, who resides at Ipswich, had, by exclusive attention to the subject, brought the Gregorian telescope to a degree of perfection surpassing any thing of the kind I have ever yet met with. Some months since, in the course of his experiments, he first completed a Cassegrainian telescope of one foot in length; and on viewing Jupiter with it, with a power of about 100, I was instantly struck with the brightness of the image, far exceeding what might have been expected from the aperture; but I supposed this to have been a deception arising from the specula being more exquisitely figured than usual, which, producing greater distinctness, occasioned the idea of superior light. A short time after this, the same artist received an order for another telescope, which, from the success that had attended his recent efforts, he recommended to be of the Cassegrainian form. The aperture was five inches, the length thirty inches, and with a power of near 400 the image was so perfectly distinct and luminous, that I could no longer hesitate to conclude that, from some unknown cause, the Cassegrainian telescope actually possessed far more light than the Gregorian, and I waited most anxiously for an opportunity of verifying this, and determining the difference by experiment.

'Such an opportunity soon presented itself, and under circumstances peculiarly favourable, as another excellent telescope of the Cassegrainian form was made, and I was fortunate enough to procure a Gregorian made by Mr. Crickmore some time before. The mirrors of both these telescopes were cast at the same time, and from the same pattern, so that no difference of light could arise from any difference in the composition of the metal. The magnifying power of both instruments was ascertained by experiment to be very nearly equal; but the excess was rather on the side of the Cassegrainian.

'The telescopes being placed side by side, were directed to a printed card, at the distance of fifty yards; and on viewing it, the far superior brightness of the image in the Cassegrainian was strikingly apparent. Having prepared a circular piece of paste-board to close the end of the Cassegrainian telescope, I drew a number of concentric circles on it, at the distance of the twentieth of an inch from each other. The paste-board was then placed in the end of the tube, and an aperture was made, which was enlarged by cutting out one circle after another till the card appeared equally bright through both telescopes, and of this the eye judges most accurately.'

The Brigade-major then states the result of several experiments, from which it appears that the light in the two telescopes was equal when the area of the aperture of the Cassegrainian was to that of the Gregorian in the ratio of 4.632 to 10.871; and consequently that, when the apertures in both are the same, the proportion of light will be nearly as 7 to 3. A difference of such magnitude, he very justly observes, ought not to be admitted without extreme caution; and it was suspected that the polish of the great mirror of the Gregorian telescope might not be quite so perfect as that of the other, in consequence of its having been made some time longer than the latter: but this doubt was removed by a comparison of the same Cassegrainian with a new and very perfect Gregorian, made by the same artist, from which it was found that the light of the former was to that of the latter, with the same aperture, in the proportion of 3 to 2.

In the first experiment, it is observed, the advantages of polish might *perhaps* be on the side of the Cassegrainian telescope: but, in the latter, they were *much* in favor of the Gregorian. A mean, therefore, of both results may probably be considered as approaching the truth; and the light of a telescope of the Cassegrainian construction may be taken, compared with that of a Gregorian of the same aperture and power, at about 60 to 33.

'A fact so new,' says the author, 'naturally leads the mind to hazard a conjecture as to the cause. In the Gregorian telescope, a column of light from a point of the object is received on the large mirror, and reflected in a cone of rays, the vertex of which is its focus, where an image is formed. Here all these rays meet in a single *point*, and, crossing each other, fall on the small concave mirror, whence they are again reflected, and form another image near the eye. Now, if light be supposed to consist of particles of matter, is it not possible that these particles, crossing in the same point, may interfere with each other? or, when thus forced within a certain distance of each other, may not a power of repulsion exist, which would occasion many of them to be dissipated? In the Cassegrainian telescope the rays reflected from the great mirror are received by the small convex mirror *before* they arrive at their focus, and are consequently reflected back without having crossed as in the Gregorian. The conclusion then seems to be, that, wherever an image is formed, much light is lost, and this conclusion perhaps derives additional force from a circumstance noticed in most elementary works on optics, viz. that the satellites of Jupiter and his belts may be distinctly seen with a Galilean telescope, whilst, with an astronomical telescope of an equal aperture and power, they remain invisible.'

How far this explanation may be satisfactory we shall not decide: but the fact itself must be considered as of importance sufficient to attract the attention of opticians and astronomers, and may probably lead to very interesting results.

Papers in MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, PHYSIOLOGY, &c.

PART II.

An Account of some Organic Remains found near Brentford. By the late Mr. William Kirby Trimmer. — This paper contains an unadorned and interesting account of the extraordinary organic remains which have been found in the neighbourhood of Brentford. The strata are described as being, 1st, a sandy loam, 2d, sandy gravel, 3d, calcareous loam, 4th, gravel containing water, and, 5th, the extensive layer of blue clay which stretches under the metropolis and all its vicinity, at the depth of about 200 feet below the surface of the level land. No organized remains are found in the first stratum; the 2d presents some shells and small mutilated bones; in the 3d, are large remains of the ox and deer; and in the 4th, are found the teeth and bones of the elephant, both of Asia and Africa, the teeth of the hippopotamus, and the bones, horns, and teeth of the ox. The remains of the 5th stratum are of marine origin.—In another spot, not far from the first, where the strata are nearly the same with those which are enumerated above, the remains of the elephant, hippopotamus, ox, and deer, are chiefly found in the 3d stratum, viz. that of the calcareous loam. They are deposited in such great abundance, that, in turning over an area of 120 yards, 6 tusks of the hippopotamus have been found: besides the tooth and horn of a deer, the tusk and grinder of an elephant, and the horns and skull of an ox.

On a New Construction of a Condenser and Air-pump. By the Rev. Gilbert Austin. — The mechanism of this instrument cannot well be understood without a reference to the plates which accompany it: but its principal merit seems to consist in the manner in which glass joints are connected together, so

as to be air-tight, without the intervention of any moist su
stances which might interfere with the results of the expe
ments performed with the machine. The description is dra
up with a degree of prolixity which is always undesirable
such occasions, and often produces the obscurity whi
Mr. Austin has been anxious to avoid.

On the Formation of Fat in the Intestines of living Anima
By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. — It is here observed that the gr
diversity in the size and structure of the colon, in differe
kinds of animals, having led the author to suspect that so
important function in the economy of the living body
performed by this organ, he was induced by several analogies
conceive that their office consists in the formation of
He supports his hypothesis by the resemblance which exi
between the situation of the contents of this part of
alimentary canal, and that of the muscular fibre when it is
a state of conversion into adipocire; and by the fact th
substances of a fatty nature have occasionally been found
the colon: but he confesses that the strongest argument
its favour is that he is 'acquainted with no other mode
which fat can be formed.' Perhaps our readers may
deem this kind of reasoning quite convincing. — T
paper, which is considerably extended and very discursi
consists of a relation of facts; some adduced from Sir Everar
own experience, and others furnished by Dr. Babington a
Mr. Brande. Some experiments are brought forwards by
latter, in order to prove that the bile is the principal ag
by which this change is effected; and it is implied th
the formation of fat is one of the most important purpo
which the bile serves in the animal economy. The wh
communication is certainly not without interest, though
think that it is very far from being perfectly satisfactory.

On the colouring Matter of the black Bronchial Glands, a
of the black Spots in the Lungs. By Geo. Pearson, M.
F.R.S. — It is well known that, in the adult human subje
the bronchial glands are generally of a black or dark blue colo
and that spots or lines of the same hue make their appeara
on the surface of the lungs about the age of 20, and continue
increase until nearly the whole superficies of the lungs becom
blackened. This black appearance has been conjectured
depend on the presence of carbonaceous matter: but
supposition had not been submitted to the test of experime
and some considerations even seemed adverse to it. Dr. Pears
relates a series of experiments which he performed for
purpose of procuring the coloring matter in a separate sta
and afterward reports the effects produced on it by differe
re-agent

re-agents; and his conclusion is in favor of the conjecture, that the black matter in the lungs and bronchial glands is a proper animal charcoal in an uncombined state; *i. e.* not existing as a constituent ingredient of organized animal solids or fluids. It is, as he observes, 'a black, tasteless, infusible powder, indissoluble in muriatic acid, nitric acids, and perhaps all common acids, except the sulphuric; affording as large a proportion of charcoal acid as animal and vegetable charcoal which has been exsiccated at the same temperature, and equally resisting fire in close vessels.' Dr. P. supposes this charcoal to be received in an extremely small quantity during the act of respiration, and that a gradual accumulation of it takes place in the pulmonary organs.

Experiments on the Alcohol of Sulphur, or Sulphuret, of Carbon. By J. Berzelius, M.D., F.R.S., &c.; and A. Marcet, M.D., F.R.S., &c. — Respecting the nature of the alcohol of sulphur, a substance which was originally discovered by Lampadius, many opinions have been formed. Some chemists have supposed it to be a compound of sulphur and hydrogen; others, a combination of sulphur and charcoal; while a third conjecture was that it is a triple compound of sulphur, hydrogen, and charcoal.

The present paper consists of four sections; 1st, respecting the preparation and general properties of the alcohol of sulphur; 2d, experiments to determine whether it contains hydrogen; 3d, experiments to demonstrate the presence of the carbon; and, 4th, experiments to ascertain the proportion of its elements. The memoir is written with that ability which might be expected from the character of the authors, and must be regarded as adding very considerably to our knowlege of the subject on which it treats. The properties of the alcohol of sulphur are stated with much accuracy and perspicuity, but at too great length to allow of our transcribing the detail. — With respect to the second subject of inquiry, the authors conclude that the alcohol of sulphur contains no hydrogen: while in the next place they unequivocally prove that it does contain carbon, and that it is to be regarded as a true sulphuret of carbon. As to the proportion of its constituents, Drs. B. and M. found, by several different modes of analysis, that it is composed of 85 parts of sulphur to 15 of carbon; and, comparing this result with the numbers assumed as equivalents for these bodies, we perceive that the above proportion corresponds very nearly with the supposition that the substance contains two portions of sulphur to one of carbon.

On the Means of procuring a steady Light in Coal-mines, without the Danger of Explosion. By Wm. R. Clanny, M.D.— The proposal of Dr. Clanny is that the lights employed in coal-mines should be inclosed in a lamp secluded from the atmosphere, and supplied with air by bellows which will force it through a stratum of water; while the air in the lamp, which has served for combustion, is also forced through another stratum of water. The suggestion appears so plausible, that we think it ought to be tried in all mines that are exposed to the terrible accidents which of late have so frequently occurred.

Additional Observations on the Effects of Magnesia in preventing an increased Formation of Uric Acid; with Remarks on the Influence of Acids upon the Composition of the Urine. By W. T. Brande, Esq., F.R.S. Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution. — We are here presented with the results of the author's additional experience on the effect of magnesia in altering the state of the urine. Several cases are detailed at some length; and Mr. B. concludes with the following practical observations:

'1. That where alkalies fail to relieve the increased secretion of uric acid, and to prevent its forming calculi in the kidneys, or where they disagree with the stomach, magnesia is generally effectual, and that it may be persevered in for a considerable time without inconvenience, where the tendency to form excess of uric acid remains.

'2. When the alkalies, or magnesia, are improperly continued, after having relieved the symptoms connected with the formation of the red sand, or uric acid, the urine acquires a tendency to deposit the white sand, consisting of the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate and phosphate of lime.

'3. The mineral acid, (muriatic, sulphuric, and nitric,) diminish, or entirely prevent the deposition of the phosphates; but are apt to induce a return of the red gravel.

'4. That vegetable acids, especially the citric and tartaric, are less liable to produce the last-mentioned effects, even when taken in large doses for a long time; and that carbonic acid is particularly useful in cases, where the irritable state of the bladder prevents the exhibition of other remedies.'

Additions to an Account of the Anatomy of the Squalus Maximus, contained in a former Paper; with Observations on the Structure of the Branchial Artery. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart., F.R.S. — Since the author wrote his former account of the anatomy of the *Squalus Maximus*, (see our Review for May, 1810, page 49,) he has had an opportunity of examining the animal with more attention, in consequence of two having been caught at Brighthelmstone during the last winter. The additional observations

tions relate principally to the structure of the liver and its ducts, the testicles, and the brain. With respect to this latter organ, Sir Everard observes, as the point most deserving of attention, that the proportion of the cerebellum to the tubercula quadrigemina is greater than in other species of this genus. An ample description is given of the eye, which is small for the size of the animal. With respect to the ear, the most remarkable circumstance is the great capacity of the cavity in which the semi-circular canals are contained. The branchial artery is furnished with a very conspicuous muscular structure; and it is conjectured that this may be necessary to accelerate the circulation through the part, when the fish is at a great depth below the surface, and consequently exposed to a proportionable degree of pressure:

'My former account,' says Sir Everard, 'was taken from a Squalus Maximus caught at Hastings, in November 1808, and the parts which I examined were brought to London by Mr. Clift, who went down, at my desire, to dissect them; but the weather being stormy and cold, the fish was brought no further than the beach, so that the examination was conducted under great disadvantages, and the parts brought away were in a mutilated state. The sketch of the fish made upon the spot by Mr. Clift is now found to be generally correct, except the omission of a small fin between the anus and tail, which had been buried by the weight of the fish in the sand.

'The omission of this small fin in the drawing is an error of considerable importance, as it deprived the fish of one of its characteristic marks, and has led naturalists, who have since had the opportunity of examining other specimens with more accuracy, to conclude that this fish was a distinct species from those which they described; I am therefore particularly desirous to correct the mistake.'

Some farther Observations on a new Detonating Substance. By Sir H. Davy, LL.D., F.R.S., &c. &c.—This ingenious chemist here details a number of additional experiments, which he performed with his accustomed dexterity and address on the newly discovered detonating compound, of which an account was given in the former part of these Transactions. (See our last Number, p. 69.) Notwithstanding the dangerous nature of the process, and the risks which he had already run in the attempt, he again endeavoured to decompose the substance, so as to ascertain the nature and proportion of its ingredients. By carefully introducing it into a tube of mercury, he succeeded in procuring an oxymuriate of mercury, with a residue of azot; and, from the quantity obtained, he concludes that the composition of the substance in question is about 51 parts by weight of azot, and 643 parts of dry oxymuriatic acid, or chlorine; or in volume about 19 to 81: though, from the nature of the process, he thinks it is probable that the estimate of the proportion of azot may be too small. In reasoning on the nature and constitution of this body, Sir Humphrey proceeds on the peculiar view which he takes of the nature of the oxymuriatic and muriatic acids: but we cannot perceive that any circumstance is connected with this new substance which gives additional force to the hypothesis. Perhaps the subsequent remarks may be regarded as rather adverse to it:

'The results of the analysis of the new compound are interesting for several reasons.

'They shew, what seemed probable from other facts, that there is no strict law of analogy, which regulates the combinations of the same substance with different substances. As three of hydrogen combine with one of azote, and one of hydrogen with one of chlorine, I thought it probable that the new compound would contain three of chlorine to one of azote, which is not the case.

'This compound is the first instance known of one proportion of a substance uniting to four proportions of another substance, without some intermediate compound of 1 and 1, 1 and 2, and 1 and 3; and the fact should render us cautious in adopting hypothetical views of the composition of bodies from the relations of the quantities in which they combine. Those who argue that there must be one proportion of oxygen in azote, because there ought to be six proportions in nitric acid, instead of five, which are produced from it by analysis, might with full as much propriety contend, that there must be azote in chlorine in some simple multiple of that existing in the compound.'

Experiments on the Production of Cold by the Evaporation of the Sulphuret of Carbon. By Alex. Marcet, M.D., F.R.S., &c. —The author of this paper, who is so well known for the accuracy and nicety of his chemical operations, here reports a number of interesting experiments which he performed with the sulphuret of carbon, on the production of artificial cold. By covering the substance, on which the experiment is to be made, with a porous body, moistening this latter with the sulphuret, and promoting the evaporation by the action of the air-pump, a cold of — 80° may be easily obtained.

On a Saline Substance from Mount Vesuvius. By James Smithson, Esq., F.R.S. — Mr. Smithson supposes that many natural phænomena indicate that the earth was once in a state of general conflagration; and that a kind of stony crust or envelope was produced by this process, under which is contained a large mass of combustible matter, which still continually bursts forth in volcanic eruptions. After this preliminary observation, he proceeds to the analysis of a saline body which was ejected from Vesuvius; and which was found to consist principally of the sulphat of potash, mixed with the sulphat of soda, together with minute portions of the muriat of soda and the muriat of copper. The saline mass was mixed with a quantity of insoluble matter, which was principally the ore of iron.

Some Experiments and Observations on the Substances produced in different Chemical Processes on Fluor Spar. By Sir H. Davy, LL.D., F.R.S., &c. — Sir Humphrey remarks that, when potassium is burnt in silicated fluoric acid-gas, the gas is absorbed, and a substance is produced which, when heated in oxygen, reproduces the silicated fluoric acid. He at first supposed that the acid was deoxidated in this process: but he was subsequently led to believe that it was analogous in its nature to the muriatic acid, which, according to the new hypothesis, consists of a peculiar substance united to hydrogen. The fluoric acid enters into three substances which have been the subject of much interesting investigation: viz. silicated fluoric acid-gas, liquid fluoric acid, and fluo-boric acid-gas; and it is observed that three hypotheses may be formed respecting the nature of the fluoric compounds.

'In the first, which is that generally adopted, the silicated fluoric acid gas is supposed to be a compound of silica and a peculiar acid, itself consisting of inflammable matter and oxygen; fluo-boric acid gas, a compound of boracic acid and the same acid; and pure liquid fluoric acid as water combined with the acid.

'In the second hypothesis, that which I have alluded to in the beginning of this paper, and that adopted by M. Ampere, the silicated fluoric acid is conceived to consist of a peculiar undecompounded principle, analogous to chlorine and oxygen, united to the basis of silica, or *silicum*; the fluo-boric acid of the same principle united to boron; and the pure liquid fluoric acid as this principle united to hydrogen.

'In the third hypothesis, which probably would have been formed by the disciples of the phlogistic school of chemistry, had they been acquainted with the facts, the liquid fluoric acid is considered as an undecompounded body; and the metals and inflammable bodies as compounds of certain unknown bases with hydrogen: silicated fluoric acid gas, on this idea, must be regarded as a compound of the fluoric acid with the basis of silicum, and fluo-boric acid gas as a compound of fluoric acid and the basis of boron.'

The author confesses that it is difficult to devise any simple experiments which may positively decide on the truth of these hypotheses: but he thinks that, by adopting analogical reasoning, we may discover which of them is most conformable to other chemical facts. Some experiments are then adduced to shew that fluoric acid does not contain either water or oxygen; and the effects of electricity on fluoric acid are related: all which circumstances are supposed to be most in favour of the second of the three hypotheses stated above. — Sir H. afterward relates a number of experiments which he performed with the intention of procuring the fluoric acid in a pure or uncombined state, but without success. The following is the inference which he draws on this subject:

> ‘ From the general tenor of the results that I have stated, it appears reasonable to conclude that there exists in the fluoric compounds a peculiar substance, possessed of strong attractions for metallic bodies and hydrogen, and which combined with certain inflammable bodies forms peculiar acids, and which, in consequence of its strong affinities and high decomposing agencies, it will be very difficult to examine in a pure form, and, for the sake of avoiding circumlocution, it may be denominated *fluorine*, a name suggested to me by M. Ampere.’

The volume closes with the usual list of presents received by the Society, and with an Index.

ART. VI. *Sicily and its Inhabitants.* Observations made during a Residence in that Country, in the Years 1809 and 1810. By W. H. Thompson, Esq. 4to. pp. 234. with Plates and a Map of Sicily. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

WE were recently called, in the case of Mr. Blaquiere, to report the work of a writer who laboured to exhibit, in a connected shape, a variety of miscellaneous information with respect to Sicily and the coast of Barbary *; and we come now to render an account of another production suggested by the same fertile topic, but comparatively limited in its extent, Mr. Thompson not having aimed at going beyond the boundaries of Sicily, and professing to give rather an illustration of particular topics than to attempt comprehensive descriptions. In point of political feeling, he is as ardent an advocate as Mr. Leckie, or Mr. Blaquiere, for British interference in the affairs of Sicily. He speaks with partiality of the royal family, but believes that we might be instrumental in introducing improvements of great importance, without deviating from the pledge formerly given, of holding the island for its lawful sovereign, and not for ourselves. Every person, he says, on visiting Sicily, must exclaim that nature has done every thing for it; art, nothing. Almost all the articles, for which we are at present dependent on a precarious intercourse with Italy, might be supplied by this fertile island, if it were under a different system of cultivation. Mr. Thompson's object has accordingly been to urge the public to consider how greatly England is interested in the preservation of Sicily, and of how much consequence it was that the French should not obtain possession of it.

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* See Review for January last.

With all his sollicitude, however, for the retention of Sicily, Mr. T. has no hesitation in acknowleging that to render that island productive will be the work of much time and labour. It is yet so unimproved as to have no roads farther than forty miles from Palermo; beyond that limit, nothing but tracks occur, which it is impossible to discern without a guide who is well acquainted with the country. They are not practicable for carts, and the conveyance of corn or merchandise can therefore take place only on the backs of mules. With regard to the oppressive corn-laws, and the tyrannical ascendancy of the nobility, Mr. Thompson confirms the observations which we extracted, several years ago, from the crude but useful publication of Mr. Leckie *. 'Nothing,' he admits, 'is seen in Sicily but misery and oppression on all sides, and a government sunk into the last stage of weakness.' As long as Naples remained to the present king of Sicily, his ministers had no other policy respecting that island than to keep it in complete submission to their continental territory; and, in the execution of this policy, they appear to have followed a course nearly as mild and liberal as that of our government of former days with respect to Ireland.

Mr. Thompson is much fonder of distributing praise than censure. He passes over, with a gentle hand, the wretched education of the Sicilian nobles, and takes pleasure in vindicating the behaviour of the fair sex.

> 'I confess,' he says, 'I have acquired a considerable degree of regard for the Sicilians: I found them to possess many amiable qualities. I went amongst them as a stranger, without any particular recommendation except that of being an Englishman: but this was sufficient. I found many of them men possessing the most refined manners, endowed by nature with excellent natural abilities; though I must confess their education is not always attended to sufficiently. I found the women amiable and unaffected; and, notwithstanding general opinion originating from the freedom of manners allowed, many of them virtuous, affectionate, and well informed, their education being more attended to than that of the men.
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> 'I do not mean to affirm that this is always the case. I well know it is not; but one must not, from particular examples of vice and immorality, censure a whole people; and at all events I shall be happy if I can, in any degree, remove a very common, though erroneous opinion, that the freedom of manners abroad, which an Englishman is not accustomed to at home, is the consequence of confirmed vicious habits: and that, because the customs of a country are different

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* M. R. Vol. lix. p. 283.

from our own, there must be an entire absence of all virtuous principles.' —

'A Sicilian nobleman may generally be considered accomplished; his manners are agreeable, often refined; he possesses talents from nature, which appear in some shape or other: for it is rare to meet a Sicilian who does not play, or sing, who cannot boast of some acquirement, which will contribute to the pleasures of a mixed society. It is from this circumstance that society abroad is so agreeable. In our own country there is frequently, even amongst persons of the greatest information, a dead silence, a formality that destroys all confidence. In Sicily this is not the case: *there, there* is no formality. Every person endeavours to contribute to the amusements of themselves and others; and if a stranger is present, it is the general endeavour to make it agreeable to him. There are, however, many men in Sicily of truly cultivated understandings; and I must say when this was the case, society held out charms not often found in this country.'

The author finds it necessary, however, to qualify the last part of the encomium, by expressing regret that the improvement of the natural talents of the Sicilians is not the object of greater attention; and his good nature evidently leads him far astray when he avows (pp. 50, 51, 52, 53.) a decided approbation of the practice of educating girls in a convent. Admitting, for argument's sake, that the impressions received in these retreats are (as he says) all virtuous, what a poor and inadequate preparation do they afford for a knowlege of the world and the duties of domestic life! This, indeed, Mr. T. is obliged to confess; and, in adhering to his praise of convent-education, he is driven to make a distinction which, we confess, is not altogether clear to our comprehensions, between what he terms '*its effects and its consequences.*' He runs through the circle of the royal family in the same indulgent disposition, alleging that the King has more capacity and the Queen more humanity than the public are disposed to allow them. It is amusing, indeed, to read (pp. 38, 39.) the apostrophe in which this well intentioned writer endeavours to make the freedom of his observations on the country acceptable to her Majesty; as if she were what Bonaparte had the modesty to declare himself to have been in the midst of the horrors of his Russian retreat, "accessible to no other sentiments than those which affected the happiness and grandeur of the empire." Mr. Thompson admits, however, that the Queen has a wonderful partiality for Naples and Neapolitans; that she may have acted, on some occasions, with 'severity, perhaps with apparent injustice;' and that she has for a long time had a dislike to our countrymen: for which he accounts by the freedom taken with her character in our public prints.

It appears that Mr. T. visited all the remarkable places on the coast of Sicily: but into the interior he ventured comparatively little, in consequence of the wretched accommodations for travelling. Of the capital, he gives this description:

'The approach to the city of Palermo, from the sea, presents a most enchanting prospect. The bay itself is very extensive, and encircled in its sweep by a diversity of mountains and hills, whose various forms give an interesting grandeur to the scene. Between the beach and the foot of these hills lies a wide open plain, from whence rise, in great majesty, towers, cupolas, and spires, in wild confusion, yet displaying a graceful symmetry.'—

'A stranger is much struck by the first view of Palermo, even in a nearer approach. Every house appears a palace; but the eye soon gets accustomed to this; and a more close inspection, particularly into the interior of them, soon lessens our admiration: for though the principal streets are ornamented with statues and fountains, and with many edifices, whose exterior, at a distance, seems worthy of a capital, yet most of the others are extremely narrow and winding, very dirty, and almost impassable, at times, from the badness of the pavement.'—

'There are two principal streets, which traverse the whole extent of the city, and cross each other. These are each a mile in length; and in the centre of them is a small square, called the Ottangolo. There are four gates; one at each extremity of these streets; and from the square above mentioned the whole extent of them can be seen.'—

'The houses are all built to a great height, and, agreeably to the customs of this and the neighbouring countries, have balconies, guarded by iron railing, to most of their windows.

'These projections, indeed, in some measure, destroy the symmetry of the architecture; but this is amply made up by the convenience they afford of enjoying the cool evening breeze, in a climate generally so warm as this is. There are an immense number of churches and convents: I believe they exceed three hundred.—

'The mode of building in this country differs greatly from ours. The ground-floor, even of the most magnificent palaces, frequently consists of shops: in each building there is a common stair-case, and each stage of apartments forms, as it were, a separate residence, being generally inhabited by different families; and this is always the case, except in the residences of some of the principal nobility.'

In describing the manners of the fashionable society of Palermo, the author apprizes his readers that an introduction to respectable families is a matter of much more difficulty than it has commonly been imagined. Notwithstanding the great popularity of our countrymen,

'An Englishman must be a long time at Palermo, he must be gentlemanly in his manners, correct in his conduct, and possess the means of rendering himself an agreeable companion, before he will be admitted with freedom or intimacy into the houses of the inhabitants.'—

'We are apt to believe in our own country that levity of manners bespeaks levity of mind: but this is not always the case abroad. Great latitude of conversation is allowed; and I have conversed with the most modest women on subjects which my own countrywomen would think it an insult to allude to. Yet this means nothing: they would be astonished if you in the slightest degree presumed upon it.

'A person going to Palermo, expecting to find every woman ready to like him, will be most egregiously mistaken.'

From Palermo, Mr. T. proceeded to Messina in a coasting-boat, which is by far the most pleasant mode of conveyance. The boat's crew consisted of twelve men. Having taken his mattrass with him, he spred it under a good awning, and regularly slept on board; making it a rule to bathe every morning, after which he found himself as much refreshed as if he had passed the night in a comfortable bed. His provisions he carried with him, but to cook his dinner it was necessary to go on shore; giving a preference to the spots which afforded him the advantage of shade. The scenery along the shore was delightful, and endeared to the admirer of antiquity by its connection with classical events. Ætna was generally in prospect, at the distance of forty or fifty miles; and, among other places, Mr. T. passed the site of the antient Himera, the scene of the defeat of the Carthaginians by Gelo, on the very day on which Leonidas sacrificed himself for the liberty of Greece.—On arriving at Milazza, the antient Mylæ, within thirty miles of Messina, the author was challenged by English sentinels; who, he afterward found, were stationed on the coast all the way to Messina. This precaution was necessary, as well from the vicinity of the Calabrian shore as from the number of privateers which harass this part of the island.

'No prospect can be more striking than the view of Messina from the sea.'—

'The most careless spectator cannot fail being struck with the appearance of lofty and of rugged mountains, which rise almost immediately from the beach: so that Messina is in general situated upon high ground, forming a noble sweep on the swelling eminences, and rising in pleasing gradation so as to present almost every public edifice in the best point of view; its masses of elegant white architecture, glowing in the sun-beam, and finely contrasting with the deep green of the immense forests which clothe the back-ground, whilst the lower grounds on each side exhibit every symptom of extraordinary fertility.'—

'The manners, habits, customs, &c. of Messina, are, of course, similar to Palermo; the only difference is, that at the latter place they are much gayer; and Palermo possesses one great advantage over Messina that of having good roads in the vicinity, whereas at Messina hills surround it in every direction, and these, except the road to Catania, are all very bad.'—

'There can be no doubt that Messina was a town in the time of the Siculi, or most ancient inhabitants of the island; though Thucydides observes, that its first Grecian occupants were pirates who lived on the Italian shore of Campania, principally in the city of Cumæ, and derived their origin from emigrant colonists from Chalcis in the Eubœan state.'—

'Its situation, so convenient to commerce, and the fertility of its vicinity, soon rendered it flourishing: but these advantages only served to tempt the cupidity, and to facilitate the approach of invaders.'—

'In some respects Messina is a place of more consequence than Palermo, not only from its most excellent harbour, but also from its very considerable trade, chiefly consisting in silk, oil, fruit, corn, and wine.'—

'This city suffered most severely from an earthquake in the year 1783, the effects of which it has not yet recovered.—

'It is proper to notice, however, that in many parts of the city only the upper stories were thrown down, whilst the lower ones remaining afforded a safe shelter to numbers towards the close of this awful visitation, who had learned experience from the first shocks; for then many who remained in the houses, as well as those who flew into the streets, being killed by the fall of the buildings, the survivors sought and found shelter under the door and window frames, their situation thus placing them out of the range of the falling materials.'—

'Most of the new-erected houses possess a smaller elevation than their predecessors, the architects having learned wisdom from experience; yet still, from their elegance, they may be said to resemble palaces. Great attention has also been paid to the strength of these modern edifices, being raised on arches throughout the whole of the ground floors, whilst these vaults, being distinct from the dwellings, are generally occupied as shops.'

Mr. Brydone long since apprized the public that the Gulf of Charybdis had degenerated as much in terrific grandeur from its Odyssean character, as the feeble mortals of the present day from the heroes of the Homeric age. Mr. Thompson bears similar testimony, and observes that Charybdis is marked only by a rippling on the water, which is seldom of consequence, except when the wind and the current are adverse to each other. The population of Messina has been greatly over-rated, and does not in his opinion exceed 30,000. Proceeding southward to the base of Ætna, and the city of Catania, the traveller passes through a less hilly tract than is common in Sicily, a plain being a sight of rare occurrence in this picturesque island. The torrents in the way are numerous; and Mr. T. stood in need of all the delight which is afforded by classical recollections, to enable him to keep up his spirits in the midst of bad weather. In passing the river Cantara, at a short distance from the base of Ætna, the eye is struck by the discovery of a distinct boundary to the progress of the matter thrown out from the volcano; the side of the river nearest to Ætna being formed of lava, while the other consists of marble and calcareous substances. After having made his way through huge masses of lava, the traveller reaches the beautiful city of Catania, where he finds the only University in the island, together with many traces of the town as it stood in the time of the Romans, which have been discovered by digging through the lava that covers the surface:

> 'The whole of these ruins are rich in marbles, and afford much entertainment to the passing stranger; who will also be pleased with much of the modern architecture, particularly the churches, amongst which the Cathedral is extremely large, and no less beautiful, crowned with an elegant cupola of large dimensions.
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> 'This place is considered, upon the whole, as one of the most agreeable for residence in Sicily. Wine is excellent: the town itself clean and regular; and the buildings handsome, many of them magnificent. The country round it is beautiful, and nothing can exceed the scenery of the plain of Catania, bounded by Mount Ætna and the sea.
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> 'The Sicilians are much attached to this mountain, and with great reason: it produces them every necessary and every luxury of life; and without the inexhaustible supply of snow obtained from its summit, how would the Sicilians exist during the heats of summer?'—
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> 'The summit of Mount Ætna is throughout the whole year covered with snow. The heat in Sicily is never greater than in the months of June and July, yet the atmosphere on the top of this mountain is even then like winter. Immense quantities of snow *lay* frozen around, and on approaching the summit, the ascent is so steep that the traveller is obliged to dismount from his mule, and get up as well as he can: on getting nearer, a strong smell of sulphur is perceived. The opening of the crater is very large, and is composed of pieces of lava piled one on the other. For some time before the tourist can reach the highest part of the mountain, the smoke rises from the ground under his feet, and he hears a great noise, resembling distant thunder.
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> 'The view from hence is said to be sublime: the eye takes in the whole of Sicily, like a panorama: the straits that divide Sicily and Calabria appear like a small stream of water: the islands that surround Sicily seem to be at a very small distance, whilst around, on every side, is the unlimited prospect of the ocean.'

The variety of climate afforded by the elevation of Ætna enables the inhabitants to combine, within a comparatively small space, the fruits of the temperate and those of the torrid zone. The Palm-tree is found to produce and bring to maturity the Date; and even Cinnamon and Coffee-trees are said to have occurred here, growing in a wild state. The havock occasioned by the eruption of lava is, in some measure, compensated by the wonderful preservation in which this solid covering has kept the monuments of antiquity; so that many of the paintings taken from the ruins of Herculaneum and *Pompeii* have their colours as bright as if they had been newly executed. It is amusing to find that the dress of the females in these pictures is exactly similar to the *mode Grecque* of the present day; a proof of the accuracy with which our ladies of fashion have copied the models of antiquity.

Mr. Thompson's book joins to its local observations a considerable portion of political and statistical remark: but, in noticing the author's indulgence towards others, we must add that he cannot be said, like Bonaparte's General, Lefebvre, to be *sevère sur lui même*, since he has taken very little trouble in arranging his materials, or in correcting his composition. After a rather full account of the harbour of Messina, he comes gravely forwards (p. 219.) with a paragraph commencing, 'Messina is a sea-port;' his memory is so treacherous with regard to the studies of his youth, as to allow him to write on all occasions Dyonisius instead of Dionysius; and his style throughout is that of a familiar letter to a friend, colloquially easy, and occasionally incorrect. These and other inaccuracies form material drawbacks on the value of a sketch which, short as it is, possesses a claim to attention in the modesty and candour of its author.—The volume has the addition of a map and several views, of which the most striking represents the city and harbour of Messina.

ART. VII. *The Speech of Mr. Johnstone*, on the third Reading of the Bill for preventing the Gold Coin of the Realm from being paid or accepted for a greater Value than the current Value of such Coin; commonly called Lord Stanhope's Bill; delivered 19th July 1811. 8vo. pp. 111. Booker.

ART. VIII. *A Review of the Controversy respecting the high Price of Bullion*, and the State of our Currency. 8vo. pp. 119. 3s. Budd.

ART. IX. *The Lack of Gold*, or an Inquiry into the State of the Paper Currency of England, under the Operation of Lord Stanhope's Act. 8vo. pp. 48. 2s. Longman and Co.

ART. X. *Substance of a Speech made by Henry Parnell, Esq., 29th May* 1811, *in the Committee of the whole House of Commons*, to which the Report of the Bullion Committee was referred. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. Budd.

ART. XI. *The Depreciation of the Paper-currency of Great Britain proved.* By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. pp. 196. 6s. Longman and Co.

ART. XII. *Farther Considerations on the State of the Currency:* in which the Means of restoring our Circulation to a salutary State are fully explained, and the Injuries sustained by the public Treasury, as well as by the national Creditor, from our present pecuniary System, are minutely detailed. By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. pp. 218. 6s. Longman and Co. 1813.

THE Bullion-question has been destined to exhibit a striking instance of the transient nature of the interest which is excited by any particular discussion, in this age of revolutionary wonders. Three years ago, an acquaintance with this intricate subject, and the power of canvassing its leading arguments, were considered as a kind of necessary preliminary to the occupation of a place in a respectable circle: while the number of pamphlets published on it (little short of a hundred) gave ample evidence that the city, and the writing-classes, rivalled the parliamentary end of the town and the fashionable politician in eagerness of discussion. Yet this powerful impression has disappeared, at first before minor topics, and latterly before that which rises superior to all, — the decision of the fate of France and of Bonaparte. Among the many fortunate results of recent events, none is more cheering to the mind of the merchant or the political economist, than the prospect of redressing the inequality of our exchange, and the consequent disorder of our circulating medium; and we may now flatter ourselves with being enabled to suspend our sweeping disbursements on the Continent, and with retaining in Great Britain the metallic treasures which are imported from the other side of the Atlantic. We have accordingly been induced, by the approach of this much desired change, as well as by the merit of several tracts hitherto unnoticed by us, to dedicate another article to the merits of the Bullion-question: but, aware that its discussions are among the least inviting topics of periodical criticism, we shall endeavour to exhibit with brevity the substance of each pamphlet, and to confine our extracts from them to matters of permanent utility.

I. Of Mr. Johnstone's speech, if it be lawful to compare small things with great, we would say as Dr. Johnson said of Paradise Lost, that to be the best performance of its kind it wanted only to be the first. Mr. J. has shewn himself much better acquainted than most publishers of speeches, with the topics fit to be introduced or to be left out; and no person should be deterred from taking up this tract by an apprehension of dryness of detail or argument. The style of it is neat, and the materials are very judiciously selected. The Hon. Gentleman was connected in politics with Mr. Perceval, but had no hesitation in differing from him on this question, and in deprecating the expected measure of making bank-notes a legal tender. — Recurring to the history of our paper-money, he recapitulates the act of 1775, which prohibited the circulation of notes under 5l., and which remained in force till the stoppage of the Bank in 1797. He next mentions a circumstance less generally understood, viz. that every country-banker is bound by law to pay his notes in cash if demanded; and that any magistrate may, in case of a refusal, levy the amount at *the end of a* week by *distress and sale of goods.* It was on the existence of this obligation, that Mr. J. built his hope of enforcing the return of cash-payments; and country-bankers having long enjoyed the benefit of a wide circulation, it was but fair, he observes, that they should submit to the loss attendant on its diminution. This, we admit, may be true: but, in saying it, Mr. J. was certainly not aware of the extent of commercial embarrassment which would have been produced by such a measure. To his other propositions, such as that of confining the future circulation of paper to notes of 15l. and upwards in London, and of 10l. and upwards in the country, we have no hesitation in subscribing.

This speech is deserving of attention both for accurate statements, and for general reflections on the causes of the misfortunes of banks. How gradually, says Mr. J., do the necessities resulting from our own improvidence, and the difficulty of tracing back our steps, alter our opinions, and induce our assent to measures formerly regarded with the utmost reprobation! Too close a connection with and too liberal an advance to Government have uniformly first discredited and ultimately ruined most banks. Governments, in their dealings with banks, resemble that class of customers who, to pay one bill, demand permission to discount another. In France, depreciation was rapid because paper was issued as a capital for the war-expences; in England, slow, because it is issued only as the interest of that capital. At the time of the Suspension Act in 1797, the Bank-direction contained persons (Mr. Winthrop and others) who were brought up in the sober school of mercantile economy: they entertained no wild notions of extending trade by paper-credit; and, foreseeing dangerous consequences, they solemnly protested against the proposed measures. The reasonableness of their apprehensions appeared by the proceedings of the year 1812; in which the Bank found it necessary to come forwards and purchase Exchequer bills to a large amount, for no other purpose than to prevent their depreciation. — The history of our North American colonies, adds Mr. Johnstone, is full of instruction to us. After the substitution, above a century ago, of paper for specie in each of these states, the depreciation of the former speedily followed, and gradually proceeded in its course during thirty years; until Parliament in 1764 passed an act to deprive it of its character of legal tender. Much mischief, however, had been done, and many contracts were eventually discharged with a much less value than had been contemplated on making the previous bargains. It is consolatory to find that the difficulty of exchanging this currency for specie was less serious than it was apprehended it would be; since in the short space of fourteen months, paper was almost entirely withdrawn and replaced by the precious metals.

From these general observations, Mr. J. returns to the direct object of debate, and endeavours to prove the existence o depreciation in our paper-currency by conclusions drawn from returns at the Stamp-office. Regretting that the want of discrimination in the manner of keeping the books at that offic precludes all investigation before the year 1804, he present us with the following estimate for four years:

Years.	*Bank of England-notes in circulation.*	*Country-bank-notes.*	*Total paper-currency.*
1807	£17,500,000	26,500,000	44,000,000
1808	17,500,000	24,500,000	42,000,000
1809	20,000,000	29,500,000	49,500,000
1810	23,000,000	33,000,000	56,000,000

He censures Mr. Rose for leaving country-bank-notes whol out of his comparative estimates of the amount of our currency at different periods: but he has himself omitted to mak any allowance for the blank caused by the almost total exportation of our gold coin. With these calculations, Mr. J. connec another of equal interest, viz. the progressive rise of the pric of commodities, and lays before his readers a short abstract o Sir George Shuckburgh's tables. In these tables, the middl of the sixteenth century is assumed as a standard æra, because i was subsequently to that date that the influx of specie from th American mines materially affected our prices. Dr. Smit dwelt on the price of corn as the great index of the value o money: but to this Sir George added the price of day-labou of butcher's meat, and of twelve miscellaneous articles. Combining these various considerations, Sir G. S. estimated th the commodities which, in the year 1550, might have bee bought for 100l., would, in 1675, cost 210l.;—in 1700, 238l. —in 1740, 287l.;—in 1760, 342l.;—in 1770, 384l.;—i 1780, 427l.;—in 1790, 496l.;—in 1795, 531l.;—in 180 562;—and in 1810, according to Mr. Johnstone's computatio 820l. Though partial objections may be made to the accuracy of these conclusions, they are in substance correct, an exhibit a striking picture of the progressive deterioration of th condition of annuitants, and of all whose property or incom depends on the value of money. The next part of Mr. J. pamphlet may serve in confirmation of what we have alwa maintained; that our trade was not, until autumn 1810, s much excluded from the Continent as many among us imagine Mr. Johnstone gives in a few lines the table of our continent exports and imports. The value is real, not official.*

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* By official value, is meant the value affixed in the Custom-house boo to merchandise, by the package, according to an old schedule of computation. Official value is, in general, sixty per cent. below real value

	Exports to the Continent.	*Imports from the Continent.*
In 1805,	£20,400,000	£21,700,000
1806,	17,500,000	17,800,000
1807,	15,400,000	17,400,000
1808,	14,000,000	8,900,000 *
1809,	27,200,000	19,800,000

When treating this part of his subject, Mr. Johnstone comments with great severity on the fluctuating conduct of the Board of Trade, in granting licences at one moment and withholding them at another. The controul assumed by that Board had the serious disadvantage of favouring London merchants at the expence of those of the outports, who could not so soon become aware of the varying dispositions of Government; and who, on applying for licences, were often told that as many as were deemed sufficient to supply the market had already been granted; or, when they obtained licences, and conveyed instructions to their correspondents abroad, they generally found themselves anticipated by the London merchants. Nay, it often happened, he says, on the occurrence of a large importation from the Baltic or elsewhere, that a mass of mercantile interest was applied to stop the issue of farther licences for such goods; with the view, on the part of the importers, of deriving a large profit at the expence of the home-consumers.

The subsequent estimate, though it has no direct reference to the matter in discussion, is important as shewing the rapid increase of a particular branch of manufacture; a great part of which went, we believe, to Spanish America.

Export of cotton manufactured goods to all parts of the world, in 1805, 8,700,000l.;—in 1806, 9,900,000l.;—in 1807, 9,800,000l.;—in 1808, 12,800,000l.;—in 1809, 18,600,000l.;—in 1810, 18,000,000l.

Another calculation, displaying the value (real, not official,) of our total exports and imports for five years, is deserving of insertion:

	Total imports.	*Total exports.*
In 1805	£53,600,000	£51,100,000
1806	50,600,000	53,000,000
1807	53,500,000	50,500,000
1808	45,700,000	50,000,000
1809	59,800,000	66,000,000

If, for the sake of computing the distribution of our exports, we take a particular year, 1807 for example, and calculate by the Custom-house returns, we shall find that we shipped to the continent of Europe, in value, about 21,000,000l.; — to our West India islands, 9,000,000l.; — to America, chiefly the United States, 16,000,000l.; — to Africa, 1,300,000l.; — to India, China, and other parts of Asia, 3,200,000l.

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* After the Orders in Council.

We conclude these extracts by a statement of our registered ships, and of the men and boys employed to navigate them:

Year 1805.	*Ships.*	*Men and boys.*
England	14,700	117,668
Our colonies in North America and the West Indies	3024	15,467
Scotland	2581	15,160
Ireland	1067	5070
Isles of Man, Guernsey, and Jersey	589	4347
	21,961	157,712

It is satisfactory to find, on a comparison of different years, that, notwithstanding all the evils of war, our mercantile navy has been rather on the increase. The number of men and boys employed in 1806 was 156,021; — in 1807, it was 157,875; — in 1808, it was 157,105; — in 1809, it was 160,598; — and in 1810, it was 164,195. A considerable part of these must be allowed to have been foreign seamen: but, when to the native seamen in our merchant-ships we add the 140,000 seamen and marines serving in the royal navy, we cannot help thinking that we somewhat over-rated the danger of being outstripped in naval strength by Bonaparte and his allies.

II. The pamphlet intitled '*A Review of the Controversy*,' &c. gives a different representation of the subject from that of Mr. Johnstone's speech. It is a clear and well arranged publication, but our limits prevent us from doing more than making a very brief abstract of its several sections. One of the first topics of discussion is the state of our exchanges in 1800 and 1801. The drain of bullion at that time is here ascribed, as it was repeatedly by us, to the imports of foreign corn and the pressure of continental subsidies. The author of this pamphlet cites the early opinions of several bullionists, such as Mr. Horner and Mr. Henry Thornton, and is amused with the contrast which they form with the later doctrines of Mr. Huskisson or Mr. Giddy. In denying the coincidence between the rise of specie and the rise of the articles of life, the writer has our full concurrence: but we cannot help remarking that he is singularly unfortunate in the table by which (p. 30.) he undertakes to prove the truth of his argument. The articles selected by him are by no means necessaries of life, and, being chiefly foreign products, they are liable to fluctuate in price from a variety of political causes. His next topic is the statement given, in the Bullion-report, of the comparative amount of our exports and imports; a branch of the subject in which, he truly remarks, the triumph is on the side of Mr. Bosanquet and the other practical men. He questions the accuracy or the comparison instituted in the Bullion-report between the case of the Bank of Ireland in 1804, and the present situation of the Bank of England; and he exposes the error of the committee, in reasoning on the condition of the Bank of England in 1696 as a parallel case. Had that precedent been fully stated, it would have tended, he says, by exhibiting a derangement of exchange from magnitude of foreign expenditure, to have confirmed the reasoning of the mercantile opponents of the committee.

Of the remainder of the pamphlet, the most striking feature is a bold eulogium on the Bank-suspension-act, not merely as a temporary expedient, but as a measure of permanent policy. It has had the effect, says the author, of preventing us from being under the necessity of concluding peace, as in former ages, on the pressure of financial difficulties. The fortunate issue of the war is likely to increase the number of the adherents to this opinion, and we will not attempt to interrupt the general cordiality by reflections on the magnitude of our past sacrifices. It will belong to the historian, after the lapse of years has calmed the agitation of parties, to form a deliberate estimate of the political effects of the Bank-restriction-act; and to examine whether the overthrow of Bonaparte has been produced by events in any way connected with that measure.—With regard to the pamphlet under review, the chief faults are a too decided leaning to one side of the question, and a prolixity of style, which, in a dry discussion like the Bullion-question, ought most especially to be avoided.

III. '*The Lack of Gold*' is a more serious discussion of the subject than the quaintness of the title appears to imply. The author, like the writer whom we have just reviewed, embraces the side of the Bank, and defends it with much ability: but he confines his investigation to the time subsequent to the passing of Lord Stanhope's bill in July 1811, the effect of which was to give the last blow to the existence of gold in our currency. Under these circumstances, he labours hard to prove the position that paper is almost as good a circulating medium as coin. The value of both, he says, is conventional; though in gold the check on augmentation is greater, yet its value is by no means permanent; and, if we analyse our present situation, we shall find that it is not our paper but our

gold

gold that has undergone a change of value. Paper remains as before with regard to home-transactions: but, the balance of payments having become greatly unfavourable to us in late years, gold has acquired the premium attached in all such cases to bills of exchange. The author next combats the suspicion of the stability of our country-banks, and maintains that they possess the same claim to confidence now, when their reserve-funds are in Bank of England notes, as formerly when they were in specie. It follows from his reasoning that it would be altogether unadvisable to compel the resumption of cash-payments, or materially to limit our paper-issues, until the balance of payments shall cease to be considerably against us.

Decided, however, as the writer is on the side of the Bank, he by no means adopts the current prejudice in favour of the prohibition of exporting our coin, the traffic in which he would render as free as that of any thing else. He concludes his pamphlet by some observations on the general state of the country, which we should gladly have exchanged for a continuance of his remarks on the Bullion-question; since he has said enough on that topic to shew that his research had been much more effectual than that of many who have written on it. To his arguments, our chief objection is that he carries his conclusions too far; and to his language, that in the midst of well constructed periods it is somewhat deficient in perspicuity. Had a treatise from the pen of this author, of greater length and plainer style than the present, been published in the early part of the discussion, it could not have failed to attract considerable attention.

IV. *Mr. Parnell's Speech.* — Mr. Parnell became known to the public several years ago as a writer on the state of the Bank of Ireland in 1804. (See Rev. Vol. xlviii., N. S., p. 399.) In the Bullion-question, he took a decided part in favour of the Report, and animadverted on the evidence of the mercantile witnesses as proceeding from a quarter which was wholly barren of general views. Moreover, he adds, the command of money is so paramount a consideration in the eye of the merchant, as to render him the zealous advocate of a paper-system, or of whatever promises to accomplish his object. — If we mark the fluctuations in the value of money at different epochs, we shall find, says Mr. P., that the fall which has occurred in our days is the only great fall for nearly a century and a half. From 1657 to 1700, the average price of wheat was 2l. 11s. per quarter; and, during the whole of the last century, with the exception of the last seven years, it was *on* an average below that rate: but since 1793 the price of wheat has risen remarkably, and the average of twenty years would carry it to nearly 4l. per quarter. An increase in the price of corn having also been experienced throughout the Continent, to what, says Mr. Parnell, can this be owing except to the great addition made, in the present day, to the currency of the world by the adoption of paper-money? The substitution of paper for coin in England must alone have thrown many millions of gold into circulation; and we are told that the bank-paper of Paris amounts to four millions, while that of Austria is not short of eight. Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and Portugal, have each their paper-currency; which, though depreciated like the Austrian, serves to supply to a certain extent the place of coin, and, in course, to lower the value of the latter. From these various considerations, Mr. Parnell assumes that too much stress had been laid on the computed influence of our taxes and deficient harvests on the general price of commodities. Taxes, he observes, (p. 11.) operate only on the articles specifically taxed, and the enhancement of corn is likewise of partial effect. If this should seem plausible, yet, when closely scrutinized, we shall find in Mr. P. an additional example of the prevalent habit of overstraining arguments, and looking too much to one side of the question. No doubt, the adoption of paper-currency in the present age has tended to depreciate money: but the extent of that adoption has been much smaller in other countries than in our own. No doubt, likewise, the enhancement of corn affects chiefly the wages of labour: but how few commodities are independent of the fluctuations in the rate of labour? Again, if he would prove the effect of taxation to be partial, let Mr. Parnell discover and point out any article which is not subject, directly or indirectly, to its operation.

In other divisions of the subject, our ideas approximate somewhat more to those of Mr. Parnell. His observations on exchange (p. 41.) would be intitled to notice at length, had not the question been already fully before our readers. He thinks, with Lord Liverpool, that an excess in our paper-currency had begun to exist before the stoppage in 1797; and he dates this unfortunate circumstance from the permission granted to the Bank of England to issue notes so low as 5l. This, it must be confessed, was a trespass on Dr. Smith's well known limit of 10l. for notes in London, and 5l. in the country. Mr. P. does not, however, agree with Mr. Huskisson, that the recurrence of bank-stoppages is to be anticipated; since, in a country possessed of so much industry and capital as England may boast, it would be most extraordinary if we could not so manage our circulating medium as to provide against such disreputable and pernicious suspensions. Neither does he hold, with Mr. Horner, that the Bank of England, constituted as it is, has been

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an institution of great public benefit; since a larger share of advantage might (in his opinion) have been obtained had the banking-business been left free, as in Scotland. He omits, however, to mention the particular manner in which the exclusive privilege of the Bank of England has been most hurtful; we mean, in preventing the association of more than six names in any English banking-house; or, in other words, in precluding the country-part of England from the benefit of chartered banks. To what other cause are we to ascribe the endless multiplication of petty banks in small towns; and those examples of insolvency, unfortunately too frequent among bankers, which form one of the chief evils in the extensive diffusion of paper-currency?

The case of the Bank of Ireland in 1804 has given rise to much argument; the Bullionists maintaining that it was indicative of depreciation, which their opponents are equally resolute in denying. On this topic, Mr. Parnell's opinion is intitled to considerable attention. At the time of the suspension of the cash-payments of the Bank of Ireland in 1797, its notes in circulation amounted to 600,000l., and the exchange with England was generally in favour of Ireland: but, the obligation to pay in cash having been removed, the Bank of Ireland extended its circulation so rapidly as to raise it in 1804 to 3,000,000l., being five times its former amount. Country banks having gone on in the same hopeful ratio, it can excite little surprize to find that the exchange rose to 10 per cent. against Ireland. A parliamentary-committee having investigated this irregularity, and recommended a reduction of the quantity of bank-paper, the application of that remedy had the desired effect, and the exchange was re-established: but, say the opponents of the Bullion-committee, the circulation of the Bank of Ireland is again raised to three millions, and the course of exchange with England is not deranged. True, replies Mr. Parnell, but this proceeds from the depreciation of English currency. Were the present English currency equal to coin, or were it only equal to the value of Bank of England paper in 1804, we should soon see the rate of exchange turn against Ireland. If we look at the rate of foreign exchanges, we find that they are now nearly twenty per cent. against Ireland, while guineas bear a premium of more than fifteen per cent. It is said, adds Mr. P., that to alter our present system would be incompatible with the public safety: but do those who made this remark mean to assert that no danger will attend the *continuance* of that system? Is it a system beneficial to our commerce, and safe for our finances?

We must not extend our abstract of this honourable gentleman's speech: but enough has been cited to satisfy our readers that, though we may differ from him in the length to which he carries his conclusions, we are disposed to regard him as intimately acquainted with the subject, and as giving proof of the ability which we ascribed to him in our criticism of his former work, nearly nine years ago.

V. Lord Lauderdale *on the Depreciation.*—This nobleman may now be termed a kind of veteran in questions of political economy; and, in reviewing his principal production, the "Inquiry into the Origin of Public Wealth," (M.R., N.S., Vol. xliv.) we bore a favourable testimony to the extent of his reading, though we were obliged to dissent from several of his conclusions. A similar declaration is required by the two productions before us, on the Bullion-question. In his first pamphlet, he confines himself strictly to the proof of the existence of depreciation, and enters (p. 25.) at considerable length on an examination of the arguments of those who ascribe the state of our continental exchange to an unfavourable balance of trade. Among the variety of curious matter introduced in the form of notes, we find (pp. 52, 53.) an estimate of the quantity of the precious metals annually added to their circulation in the world. The object of this statement, and of a great portion of argument which appears to us almost superfluous, is to shew the impossibility of specie rising in value while its quantity is on the increase. A point of a different nature, and less known to the public, is brought forwards in a subsequent part of the pamphlet, (p. 62.) in an account of a notable trial, in July 1811, before the Court of King's Bench. The case was intitled Dennison *v.* Tollett, and stated that an agreement had been formed between Messrs. Lowndes and Batteson of Liverpool on the one part, and Messrs. Dennison, Rainier, Thellusson, and others, eminent London merchants, on the other part, to support the credit of the former by the acceptances of the latter, which acceptances the Bank of England had agreed to discount to the extent of 100,000l. The Bank kept its word, and discounted the bills three times over, for they were as often renewed: yet still this aid, as is almost always the case in bill-accommodations, proved ineffectual; Messrs. Lowndes and Co. becoming bankrupts, and the investigation of their affairs leading to an exposure of the transaction. The assistance of the Bank was undoubtedly well meant: but after such a discovery its advocates cannot allege that its discounts are confined to *bonâ fide* transactions, or prevent their antagonists from saying that, were the Bank liable to pay in specie, no loans of such magnitude could be supplied.

The noble Earl next proceeds to argue that the independence of the Bank with respect to Government affords no effectual preventative against depreciation. Paper-money falls much faster, he allows, when circulated by a government: but it will still fall, if in excess, however popular may be the constitution of the body that issues it. Nothing will be found effectual in upholding its value but a limitation of its quantity; in proof of which his Lordship remarks that, in France, at the beginning of the Revolution, an emission took place in assignats, to the amount of 700,000l. sterling: a sum, which, though issued without any security, was too moderate to suffer any fall till it was followed by others of very different magnitude. Similar examples of maintaining the value of paper for a season, by limiting its amount, are furnished by the history of our North American colonies a century ago, and more recently in the war for their independence. In both cases, the subsequent course of events proved that depreciation invariably follows the undue increase of quantity. Moreover, adds Lord L., the early history of the Bank of England itself confirms this conclusion, and is replete with lessons of instruction directly applicable to our present state of embarrassment. At no period, he says, was more firmness exhibited in maintaining, against popular opinion, measures which a very critical situation of affairs rendered absolutely necessary for the salvation of the country.

The manner in which our coin has travelled abroad, while our paper has remained at home, is very clearly explained by his Lordship (p. 172.); though we are not fortunate enough to have him on our side with regard to the operation of mercantile causes in aggravating this mischief. Neither can we flatter ourselves that he would agree with us in considering the depreciation of our bank-paper as smaller with reference to domestic than to foreign commodities. — We are thus at issue with his Lordship on several material points, and must confine our testimony of approbation to the extent of his reading, which is abundantly shewn by the mass of information interspersed throughout the notes.

VI. In his second tract, Lord L. goes a considerable way farther, and discusses the means of restoring our circulating medium to a salutary state; while he explains the manifold injury sustained by the public, as well as by individuals, from our present pecuniary system. He every where affords evidence of long continued attention to the subject: but we see little reason for enlarging on the scope of his labours, since the course of public affairs promises soon to put it in the power of Government to redeem the irregularity of our currency. It is equally unnecessary to notice his Lordship's arguments against a perseverance in the present system, because the country at large seems to be decided in a wish to depart from it; and the ministry, at least since the elevation of Lord Liverpool, appear to participate cordially in that desire. Under this impression, we decline to enter on the contents of Lord L.'s second pamphlet; and we shall merely remark, that his tables in the Appendix afford several documents and calculations which will be useful to the investigators of the Bullion-question. They contain a long list of local tokens, with the weight and value of each; as well as a variety of estimates, exhibiting the difference in value between a sum paid in notes and a sum paid in coin. With these are inserted several letters from different parts of the country, all concurring in the necessity of resorting to local tokens, and in the disappearance of the silver money issued some time ago by the Bank. Our readers may remember that considerations of this nature induced Mr. Vansittart, in the last year, to withdraw an intended motion for calling in the tokens which had been circulated by private individuals.

ART. XIII. *A Selection of Irish Melodies*, with Symphonies and Accompaniments by Sir John Stevenson, Mus. Doc., and characteristic Words by Thomas Moore, Esq. The Vth Number. Folio. 15s. Power.

WE not long since took notice of the first four numbers of this very popular work *; and having then given our opinion at some length on its general design and merits, little remains for us now to perform. The character and execution of the 5th Number do not materially differ from those of its predecessors; yet we think that, on the whole, something is observable of that wane, or decline, to which Mr. Moore alludes in the advertisement prefixed:

> 'It is not,' says he, 'so much from a want of materials, and still less from any abatement of zeal or industry, that we have adopted the resolution of bringing our task to a close; but we feel so proud, for our country's sake and our own, of the interest which this purely Irish work has excited, and so anxious lest a particle of that interest should be lost by any ill-judged protraction of its existence, that we think it wiser to take away the cup from the lip, while its flavour is yet, we trust, fresh and sweet, than to risk any longer trial of the charm, or give so much as not to leave some wish for more. In speaking thus I allude entirely to the airs, which are, of course, the main attraction of these volumes; and, though we have still many popular and delightful Melodies to produce, yet it cannot be denied that we should soon experience some difficulty, in equalling the richness and novelty of the earlier Numbers, for which, as we had the choice of all before

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* See Rev. for June, 1813.

us, we naturally selected only the most rare and beautiful. The poetry too would be sure to sympathize with the decline of the music; and, however feebly my words have kept pace with the *excellence* of the airs, they would follow their *falling off*, I fear, with wonderful alacrity. So that, altogether, both pride and prudence counsel us to stop, while the work is yet, we believe, flourishing and attractive, and, in the imperial style, "*stantes mori*," before we incur the charge either of altering for the worse, or, what is equally unpardonable, continuing too long the same.'

The present Number contains twelve airs, seven of which are harmonized for two or more voices. The first air is the well-known "Alley Croker;" and our readers will no doubt be glad to see how Mr. Moore has trodden on the ground which has been already traversed so often by others:

1.

'Through Erin's Isle,
To sport awhile,
As Love and Valour wander'd,
With Wit, the sprite,
Whose quiver bright
A thousand arrows squander'd;
Where'er they pass,
A triple grass *
Shoots up, with dew-drops streaming,
As softly green
As emeralds seen
Thro' purest crystal gleaming!
'Oh the Shamrock, the green, immortal Shamrock!
Chosen leaf
Of Bard and Chief,
Old Erin's native Shamrock!

2.

'Says Valour, "See,
They spring for me,
Those leafy gems of morning!"—
Says Love, "No, no,
For *me* they grow,
My fragrant path adorning!"—
But Wit perceives
The triple leaves,

'* Saint Patrick is said to have made use of that species of the trefoil, to which in Ireland we give the name of Shamrock, in explaining the doctrine of the Trinity to the pagan Irish. I do not know if there be any other reason for our adoption of this plant as a national emblem. Hope, among the antients, was sometimes represented as a beautiful child, "standing upon tip-toes, and a trefoil or three-coloured grass in her hand."'

And cries, "Oh! do not sever
A type, that blends
Three godlike friends,
Love, Valour, Wit, for ever!"

'Oh the Shamrock, the green, immortal Shamrock!
Chosen leaf
Of Bard and Chief,
Old Erin's native Shamrock!'

The music belonging to these words contains nothing that is new, or worthy of remark: it is the simple old air, with symphonies in the style adopted by Sir John Stevenson throughout this work.

The air called 'Molly, my Dear,' follows next, and is open to rather more observation. We must quote two lines of this song to serve as foundation for the remarks which we have to make:

'At the mid hour of night, when stars are weeping, I fly
To the lone vale we lov'd, when life shone warm in thine eye.'

Now we will appeal to any of our readers, (nay to Mr. Moore himself,) whether these lines are allowable as verses; and we may, with equal confidence, ask any who are conversant with music, whether a succession of notes expressing such lines, without any repetitions or divisions, can be called *an air?* The phrases in this music consist each of five bars, which we believe to be equally contrary to the soundest rules of composition and to the practice of the best masters. Such a piece ought not, at this time of day, to be brought forwards as beautiful: it is to our ears perfectly barbarous, and worthy only of the earliest and rudest age of the science.

'The last Rose of Summer,' to the tune of "Groves of Blarney," has great beauty, and the air is delightful.

1.

''Tis the last rose of summer,
Left blooming alone;
All her lovely companions
Are faded and gone;
No flower of her kindred,
No rose-bud is nigh,
To reflect back her blushes
Or give sigh for sigh!

2.

'I'll not leave thee, thou lone one!
To pine on the stem;
Since the lovely are sleeping,
Go, sleep thou with them;

Thus kindly I scatter
Thy leaves o'er the bed,
Where thy mates of the garden
Lie scentless and dead.

3.

‘ So soon may *I* follow,
When friendships decay,
And from Love's shining circle
The gems drop away!
When true hearts lie wither'd,
And fond ones are flown,
Oh! who would inhabit
This bleak world alone?’

This is one of the harmonized airs, and is arranged four voices in an extremely charming manner.

Of ‘The Minstrel Boy,’ which follows, we must say it is a spirited little poem: but our limits will not permit to do more than refer to it.

The celebrated old air of "Moll Roone" is one of the specimens which we have seen throughout the work: the is plaintive, simple, and sweet; and the words are in Moore's happiest manner. We extract them:

1.

‘ Farewell! — but, whenever you welcome the hour
That awakens the night-song of mirth in your bower,
Then think of the friend, who once welcom'd it too,
And forgot his own griefs to be happy with you.
His griefs may return — not a hope may remain
Of the few that have brightened his path-way of pain —
But he ne'er will forget the short vision that threw
Its enchantment around him, while ling'ring with you!

2.

‘ And still on that evening, when pleasure fills up
To the highest top sparkle each heart and each cup,
Where'er my path lies, be it gloomy or bright,
My soul, happy friends! shall be with you that night;
Shall join in your revels, your sports, and your wiles,
And return to me, beaming all o'er with your smiles! —
Too blest, if it tells me that, 'mid the gay cheer,
Some kind voice had murmur'd, "I wish he were here!"

3.

‘ Let Fate do her worst, there are relics of joy,
Bright dreams of the past, which she cannot destroy,
And which come, in the night-time of sorrow and care,
To bring back the features that joy us'd to wear.

Long, long be my heart with such memories fill'd!
Like the vase, in which roses have once been distill'd—
You may break, you may ruin the vase, if you will;
But the scent of the roses will hang round it still!'

> " *Quo semel est imbuta recens servabit odorem*
> *Testa diù.*" Hor.

In the advertisement to which we have already referred, we are informed that the sixth Number will appear in the course of this year, and that it will probably be the last of the series; the whole being intended to form three thin volumes.

Art. XIV. *A Selection of Scotish Melodies*, with Symphonies and Accompaniments for the Piano Forte, by Henry R. Bishop, and Words by Horace Twiss, Esq. No. I. Folio. 15s. Power.

This, as we learn from Mr. Twiss's preface, is only a fragment of a larger work which he had undertaken before the Irish Melodies made their appearance, and which was intended to comprize a selection of all our national music, English, Irish, Scotch, and Welsh. Mr. T. thus explains his intention:

'When the idea of this work was originally suggested to me, the Irish Melodies of Mr. Moore had not yet appeared. It was then my intention to publish a selection of *all* our national music, whether English, Welch, Scotish, or Irish; but when I found that the Irish airs had passed into the hands of a poet, whose genius ensured to them an immediate and perpetually increasing celebrity, I had no hesitation in altering my plan: and as a musical selection, professing to be general, would have been obviously imperfect when the Irish compositions should have been taken away, I resolved upon confining myself to the melodies of Scotland alone.

'Every one must have remarked how much these sweet and simple airs have suffered from the demerit of the words associated with them. In this country, almost every musical publication must depend, for its popularity, upon female patronage; and, without any affectation of refinement, it may fairly be observed, that the generality of the Scotish ballads, even where there is no improper freedom of thought, are written in too rude and careless a style, and upon topics too stale and vulgar, for the chastened taste and feeling of well-educated women. The real lovers of the Scotish music would have done more for its popularity by one small selection, containing only the few songs of which the subjects are adapted to the general taste of good society, than by all their multifarious collections of ballads, about milk-pails and ewes, and the low amours of jilted swains and murmuring shepherdesses. I am aware, that to several delightful airs have been annexed some beautiful little poems, chiefly written by Burns, and by two or three contemporaries of our own; but these gems, in proportion to the load of dross, are very, very few: and the great majority of all the spirited and touching melodies to which Scotland has given birth, still remain coupled with words fatiguingly dull, maukish, and obsolete.

'In the present publication, therefore, my principal object has been, to choose such topics as may be the most generally interesting to cultivated readers. If I shall appear to have attained so desirable an end, the public, I trust, will pardon the otherwise inexcusable offence, of heaping a new collection upon a pile already so unreasonably voluminous.'

It was certainly not unnecessary, in our apprehension, to explain the period at which these ballads were written; since the style of them, and the very turn of the thoughts and language, bear such a striking resemblance to Mr. Moore's compositions, that critics would, no doubt, have been found wicked enough to suppose that the case was different from what it really is, and that Mr. Twiss's poems were written, as they were certainly published, long after those of Mr. Moore. That, however, not being the fact, we shall content ourselves with noticing the similarity of style, which justifies us in offering to Mr. Twiss also much of the praise that we have bestowed on Mr. Moore; and the manner in which this Number is executed has made us much regret the information thus given at the conclusion of the preface:

'That I have not the prospect of continuing a work, which, on several accounts, was extremely interesting to me, is matter of more regret to myself, than I can hope it will be to my readers. However, the profession of the bar appears to be so incompatible with periodical versification, that I am afraid this Number, as it is the first, will be also the last, of my projected selection. But it will flatter, as well as gratify me, if my attempt shall rouse the ambition of some poet, whose endowments may qualify him better for the task, and who may not be too proud nor too busy to twine his fairer wreaths around the neglected Harp of Scotland. Through a long and gloomy night, that Harp has slumbered in almost unbroken silence: it is time for the light of a brighter genius to shine upon its chords, and, like the morning sun upon the statue of Memnon, awake them into harmony and life.'

Mr. T.'s preface, which (to use a Trans-atlantic phrase) is *lengthy*, consists principally of a dissertation on inversion in poetical language. We fully agree with Mr. Twiss in the general principle of objection to *forced* inversion: but, in our judgment, it is only part of a principle of objection still more general to every thing that is forced and unnatural; and we cannot adopt his criterion that 'those inversions, which would be unallowable in impassioned and declamatory prose,' are to be condemned in poetry. If we mistake not, all writers on the subject of versification are agreed that inversion is one of the qualities which distinguish it from prose: poetical inversion, therefore, must necessarily be something different from the inversion of prose;—but there cannot, we imagine, be any difficulty in distinguishing that which is natural and easy from that which is forced and perplexed; and, as no more certain criterion can be found, we do not see the possibility of farther narrowing the rule. The nearer, however, the language of poetry approaches to simplicity of style, and the less it involves the sense or requires an effort to apprehend it, the more excellent is the versification; and, if this observation be applicable to the art in all its forms, who will deny that it is most peculiarly just with reference to lyric composition? The necessity of pronouncing the words of a song in a tone and measure dictated by the air (a matter often of no small difficulty, when the composer is not to a certain degree a poet also,) is in itself a sufficient reason for requiring the greatest simplicity of style: but it is not the only reason; since the necessary brevity is another, not less strong. As Mr. Twiss has proceeded, in the work now before us, on the principle thus explained in his preface, it is fair to say that, although we have felt ourselves obliged in some measure to dissent from his doctrine, we do not perceive that it has led him into any material faults.— It too often happens that those candidates for "the meed of song," who make simplicity their only aim, are betrayed into tameness and puerility of style: but we do not find any occasion for charging Mr. Twiss with either of these defects. It is time, however, to quit discussion, and to give our readers some account of the work.

We have, indeed, little more to say than that this selection is formed on a plan almost exactly similar to that of the Irish Melodies. The present Number contains twelve airs, the words of which treat generally of absent friends, or convey reflections on death, female influence, forsaken maids, love, joy, and sadness, with a little mixture of politics* and popular topics; though, on this latter subject, it is much more sparing than the Irish Melodies. We select, as one of the best specimens, the song which Mr. T. has named 'A Poet's Tomb:'

1.

'Tho' my visions of life are so soon to depart,
  Yet sigh not, dear Helen! thus deeply for me:
The ling'ring pulsations that throb in my heart
  Are only its fond apprehensions for thee.
Oh! sad are the perils that compass thy way,
  For a season of sorrow and darkness is nigh:—
When the glow-worm appears at the close of the day,
  Her lustre betrays her, and dooms her to die.

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* The first song, on the misfortunes of the Bourbon family, shews that Mr. T. little suspected their restitution to empire so shortly after its composition.

2.

'For me, love! no sweet-wasting odours shall burn,
No marble invoke thee to deck it with flow'rs;
My ashes shall rest in a crystalline urn,
And that urn be abroad in the sun and the show'rs.
It shall lightly be swept by the cool-blowing gale,
When the gay-colour'd evening shines cheerfully through:
Around it the shadows of twilight shall sail,
And the mists of the morning embalm it in dew.

3.

'Sweet girl! may thy relics be laid in that shrine!
For, though death, we are told, is unconscious of love,
Yet it soothes me to hope they may mingle with mine,
As our spirits will mingle for ever above.
And if, when the race of our being is run,
Any record remain of the loves that we bore,
Our story shall be, that in life we were one,
And in dying we met to be parted no more.'

The idea appears to have been borrowed from the well-known and beautiful elegy of Tibullus; and the second stanza reminds us of Burns. — The 'Song of a Scotish Emigrant' was doubtless suggested by a beautiful passage in the third canto of Marmion. The last stanza of address from the wanderer, 'thro' Susquehana's wood-encumber'd brake,' possesses considerable merit:

'Even here, lovely Scotland! in want and in woe,
With a proud recollection I muse upon thee;
For thy spirit is pure as thy mantle of snow,
And firm as thy rocks that embosom the sea.
May the waters of Time, while their current shall pour,
Ever nourish thy laurels, and brighten their hue!
May Friendship and Feeling still hallow thy shore,
And the loves of thy children be tender and true!'

Human life has frequently been compared to a bubble; yet the following mode of putting the comparison has not occurred to us before, and is very pretty:

'To night, not a tear must be suffer'd to roll,
But the drops that may fall from the brim of the bowl:
For though, like the bubbles that float in our wine,
We rise on the surface, and fade with a breath,
Yet the bubbles themselves have a moment to shine,
And they dance on the wave, ere they melt into death.'

In these extracts, we presume, our readers will have recognized a striking resemblance to Mr. Moore; and though we do not here discover all his brilliancy and classical elegance, all the ease and smoothness with which he overcomes difficulties, or all the power by which he gives dignity to trifles, we find a

style

yle uniformly chaste, and well adapted to the principal purpose lyric composition, that of being suited to musical employment. With respect to the part of the musical arranger of the work, e have to observe that accompaniment has become, in the esent advanced stage of the science, so much a matter of urse, that little novelty can be expected in a production of is kind, in which the airs do not admit any very great bold- ss or variety. To those who have heard Mr. Bishop's com- sitions in the Scotish manner, and especially the sweet rain to which he has set Lord Byron's early poem of "Loch Garr," we need scarcely say that no artist could be better ualified to arrange airs composed in a style of which he is imself so excellent a master. His symphonies are more mple than those of Sir John Stevenson, and he has avoided to armonize the airs which we have felt it our duty to disapprove our former article on the Irish Melodies. Of the selection f the airs in the present Number, we cannot speak very fa- ourably; and, if the work should not proceed, we shall regret he more that Mr. Bishop did not, at the first, display his taste on those airs which are (in our opinion, justly,) more endeared to us by their popularity. We trust, however, that the design may be sufficiently patronized to be continued; and we should be glad to see it followed by a similar selection of Welsh airs, many of which are very beautiful: but we cannot go farther in encouraging such selections, particularly when no proofs are offered of a peculiar national style. We would also take this opportunity of remarking that it is the business of selection to produce the most exquisite specimens: consequently that, in each class, the number selected must be few; and, if variety be sacrificed, (which to a certain degree it must,) it should be sacrificed only for beauty.

ART. XV. *History of the Waldenses*, connected with a Sketch of the Christian Church, from the Birth of Christ to the Eighteenth Century. By William Jones. 8vo. pp. 600. 12s. Boards. Button, &c.

THE work before us is not intended to settle doubtful points in ecclesiastical history, nor to throw any new light on that subject; it affects no displays of nice critical investigation, nor does it assume to be taken from original writers: its sole object is stated to be that of rendering accessible to common readers the important and valuable information which lies scattered in a number of voluminous productions. Moderate, however, as are its pretensions, it contains a great variety of curious and highly interesting particulars: which, though not derived from primitive sources, are nevertheless worthy of reliance,

liance, the writer having had recourse only to the best secondary authorities; and, as he has exercised a sound judgment in his selections, his matter at once amuses and instructs, so that works of a higher order must yield to the present in this respect. Though the individual bias of Mr. Jones, which leads him to fix his attention on passages that did not suit the purposes of others, is very perceptible throughout, we do not mean to dispute his ingenuousness and good faith; which, indeed, are apparent in every page. His own views have evidently determined the frame and texture of the volume: but, if facts are obviously introduced for a purpose, they are fairly related; if omissions may be traced, we meet with no misrepresentations; and if the pages might sometimes be rendered more full, they are never loaded with apocryphal relations.

From a very early period, according to Mr. Jones, the true church ceased to exist within the pale of the ruling hierarchy, and took refuge amid the retreats of sectaries. He finds the successors of the apostles not among the officers of the nominal church, but among the teachers of those fluctuating bodies. According to him, the Novatians, the Paulicians, the Waldenses, the Cathari, orPuritans of antiquity and of the middle ages, and the followers of the illustrious Reformers of the fifteenth century, constitute the true flock of Christ; while the party which arrogated to itself exclusively the Christian name, which anathematized and ill treated separatists, was itself apostate and heretical. He is at no loss to shew that the Christian spirit had, at a very early period, disappeared from the church, and that the Christian virtues no longer distinguished those who called themselves Christians; while he lays before his readers numerous instances of rare merit, and of sufferings patiently and nobly endured, among those whom the dominant church had cast without its pale. No sooner does the church form a connection with the state, adopt the maxims of temporal politics, and take in its hands the weapons of persecution, than the author charges her with apostacy, and refuses to acknowlege her spiritual title; which, he contends, is to be considered from that time as vested in the objects of her persecution. Although our views do not wholly coincide in these matters with the ideas of Mr. Jones, and although we differ from him in many particulars, we must bear our testimony to the industry and judgment which his labours display, and to the candour which they every where discover.

Six chapters form the volume; treating respectively of *The Rise and Progress of Christianity from the Birth of Christ to the Close of the first Century;* —of *The Christian Church from the Close of the first Century to the Establishment of Christianity under*

tine;—of *The State of Christianity from the Accession of Con*
to the Rise of the Waldenses, A.D. 306 *to* 800;—of *The*
Christianity from the Beginning of the ninth to the End of
fth Century;—of *The History of the Waldenses and Albi-*
rom the Times of Peter Waldo, to those of Wickliff, A.D.
1360;—of *The History of the Waldenses from the*
of the fourteenth to the Close of the seventeenth Century.
rving on the new constitution of the church as settled
onstantine, Mr. Jones states that

> government of it was, as far as possible, arranged conform-
> he government of the state. The Emperor himself assumed
> of Bishop, and claimed the power of regulating its external
> and he and his successors convened councils, in which they
> , and determined all matters of discipline. The bishops cor-
> d to those magistrates whose jurisdiction was confined to
> ties; the metropolitans to the proconsuls or presidents of pro-
> the primates to the Emperor's vicars, each of whom governed
> he imperial provinces. Canons and prebendaries of cathedral
> took their rise from the societies of ecclesiastics, which Eu-
> Bishop of Verceil, and after him Augustine, formed in their
> and in which these prelates were styled their fathers and

s constitution of things was an entire departure from the order
ip, established under Divine direction by the apostles of Christ
rimitive churches. In fact, scarcely any two things could be
ssimilar than was the simplicity of the gospel-dispensation
hierarchy established under Constantine the Great. "Let
ays Dr. Mosheim, alluding to the first and second centuries,
nd the bishops of this primitive and golden period of the
with those of whom we read in the following ages. For
they were both designated by the same name, yet they dif-
tremely, in many respects. A bishop during the first and
century, was a person who had the care of one Christian as-
which, at that time, was, generally speaking, small enough
ntained in a private house. In this assembly he acted not so
ith the authority of a master, as with the zeal and diligence
hful servant. The churches, also, in those early times, were
independent; none of them subject to any foreign jurisdic-
t each one governed by its own rulers and its own laws.
is more evident than the perfect equality that reigned among
itive churches; nor does there ever appear, in the first cen-
e smallest trace of that association of provincial churches,
ich *councils* and *metropolitans* derive their origin." To which
add, that the first churches acknowledged no earthly po-
s their head. This had been expressly prohibited by their
Master. "The kings of the Gentiles," said he, "exercise
over them; and they that exercise an authority upon them
ed benefactors. But with you it shall not be so;—let
t is greatest among you be as the younger, and he that is
he that doth serve." Again, "Be not ye called Rabbi;

for one is your master even Christ, and all ye are brethren. And call no man your father upon the earth; for one is your father who is in heaven. Neither be ye called masters; for one is your master, even Christ. But he that is greatest among you shall be your servant; and whosoever exalteth himself shall be abased, while he that humbleth himself shall be exalted." These divine maxims, which are in perfect unison with the whole tenor of the New Testament, were entirely disregarded by the ecclesiastics who undertook to new-model the constitution of the Christian church, under the auspices of Constantine, and whom, as a matter of courtesy, they condescended to make its earthly head.'

Treating of this period, the fourth century, Mr. J. thus continues:

'The Scriptures were now no longer the standard of the Christian faith. What was orthodox and what heterodox were, from henceforward, to be determined by the decisions of fathers and councils; and religion propagated, not by the apostolic methods of persuasion accompanied with the meekness and gentleness of Christ, but by imperial edicts and decrees; nor were gainsayers to be brought to conviction by the simple weapons of reason and Scripture, but persecuted and destroyed. It cannot surprise us, if after this we find a continual fluctuation of the public faith, just as the prevailing party obtained the imperial authority to support them; or that we should meet with little else in ecclesiastical history than violence and cruelties committed by men who had wholly departed from the simplicity of the Christian doctrine and profession; men enslaved to avarice and ambition; and carried away with views of temporal grandeur, high preferments, and large revenues.'

In this part of his work, Mr. Jones also takes occasion to advert to the origin of the Novatians:

'It may,' he says, 'be proper to remark, that long before the times of which we now treat, some Christians had seen it their duty to withdraw from the communion of the church of Rome. The first instance of this we find on record is the case of Novatian, who in the year 251 was ordained the pastor of a church in the city of Rome, which maintained no fellowship with the Catholic church. It is unquestionably a very difficult matter at this very remote period to ascertain the real grounds of difference between Novatian and his opponents. Those who are in any tolerable degree conversant with theological controversy, will scarcely need to be apprised how much caution is necessary to guard against being misled by the false representations which different parties give of each other's principles and conduct. Novatian is said to have refused to receive into the communion of the church any of those persons who, in the time of persecution, had been induced, through fear of sufferings or death, to apostatize from their profession, and offer sacrifices to the heathen deities; a principle which he founded upon a mistaken view of Heb. vi. 4—6.'

As from this early epoch in the history of Christianity, the author considers that the nominal church altogether departed from

t and manners of its founder, and that ever since the
rch was to be found among the separatists, at the head
he places the Novatians, we are induced to transcribe
wing passage from the *Ecclesiastical Researches* of the
Robert Robinson, which Mr. Jones quotes, because it
an epitome of Mr. J.'s sentiments on the present sub-
l will enable the reader to perceive the views with
is work has been penned. Mr. Robinson says of No-

> was an elder in the church of Rome, a man of extensive
> holding the same doctrine as the church did, and published
> atises in defence of what he believed. His address was
> and insinuating, and his morals irreproachable. He saw
> eme pain the intolerable depravity of the church. Christians
> space of a very few years were caressed by one emperor,
> cuted by another. In seasons of prosperity many persons
> to the church for base purposes. In times of adversity,
> d the faith, and reverted again to idolatry. When the squall
> away they came again to the church, with all their vices, to
> thers by their examples. The bishops, fond of proselytes,
> d all this; and transferred the attention of Christians from
> onfederacy for virtue, to vain shows at Easter, and other
> remonies adulterated too with paganism. On the death of
> abian, Cornelius, a brother elder, and a violent partizan for
> the multitude, was put in nomination. Novatian opposed
> as Cornelius carried his election, and he saw no prospect
> ation, but on the contrary a tide of immorality pouring into
> h, he withdrew, and a great many with him. Cornelius,
> y Cyprian, who was just in the same condition, through
> strance of virtuous men at Carthage, and who was exas-
> eyond measure with one of his own elders, named Novatus,
> quitted Carthage, and gone to Rome to espouse the cause of
> called a council, and got a sentence of excommunication
> ainst Novatian. In the end Novatian formed a church,
> lected bishop. Great numbers followed his example, and
> e empire *Puritan* churches were constituted, and flourished
> he succeeding two hundred years. Afterwards, when penal
> ed them to lurk in corners, and worship God in private,
> distinguished by a variety of names, and *a succession of*
> *nued till the Reformation.*"'

s Mr. Jones adds:

> doctrinal sentiments of the Novatians appear to have been
> tural, and the discipline of their churches rigid. They
> first class of Christians who obtained the name of (*Cathari*)
> an appellation which doth not appear to have been chosen
> elves, but applied to them by their adversaries; from
> may reasonably conclude that their manners were simple
> oachable. They are said to have disapproved of second

marriages, regarding them as sinful; but in this they erred in common with Tertullian and many other eminent persons. A third charge against them was, that they did not pay due reverence to the martyrs, nor allow that there was any virtue in their reliques! — A plain proof of their good sense.'—

'We are informed by Mosheim, that the schism which thus originated at Rome, soon extended to other places. "It was followed by many," says he, "and their societies flourished, until the fifth century, *in the greatest part of those provinces which had received the gospel.*" One cannot but lament the scantiness of our information concerning this class of Christians, who appear to have had the truth among them, and to have walked in obedience to the commands of God.'

Another feature of these early times, which the author considers as supporting his views, is contained in the subsequent passage:

'The senate of Constantinople deputed an orator, of the name of Themistius, to express their loyal devotion to the new emperor. His oration is preserved, and merits particular attention, for the discovery which it inadvertently makes of the state of the established Catholic church at that period. "In the recent changes," says he, "both religions have been alternately disgraced, by the seeming acquisition of worthless proselytes, of those votaries of the reigning purple, who could pass, without a reason and without a blush, from the church to the temple, and from the altars of Jupiter to the sacred table of the Christians." Could a volume give us a more striking picture of the wretched state to which the Christian profession was reduced in so short a time as half a century after its establishment?'

It is with great seeming complacency that Mr. Jones introduces to his readers the charges which his contemporaries urged against Ærius; and here he finds a champion who promulgated his own favourite opinions as early as the fifth century:

'Ærius,' he relates, 'was an elder of the church of Sebastia in Pontus; and, as Epiphanius, who undertook to confute him and all other heretics, informs us, obstinately defended four great errors. These were, 1. That bishops were not distinguished from presbyters or elders, by any Divine right, for that, according to the New Testament, their offices and authority were absolutely the same. 2. That it was wrong to offer up any prayers for the dead, which it seems was become customary in those days. 3. That there was no authority in the word of God for the celebration of Easter, as a religious solemnity; and, 4. That fasts ought not to be prefixed to the annual return of days, as the time of Lent and the week preceding Easter. Such seems to have been the *heresy* of Ærius, and his writings in defence of which, we are told, met with the most cordial reception from his cotemporaries — "We know with the utmost certainty," says Mosheim, "that it was highly agreeable to many good Christians, who were no longer able to bear the tyranny and arrogance of the bishops of this century." '

Having before thrown out hints respecting his particular opinions, Mr. Jones now steps forwards, and unequivocally proclaims them in the subsequent passage:

'The distinction between bishop and presbyter or elder, which Ærius so strenuously opposed, seems to have prevailed early in the Christian church, yet it is demonstrably without the shadow of foundation in the New Testament. "That the terms, *bishop* and *elder* are sometimes used promiscuously in the New Testament," says Dr. Campbell, "there is no critic of any name who now pretends to dispute. The passage, Acts, xx. 17., &c. is well known. Paul from Miletus sent to Ephesus, and called *the elders* of the church, saying, "Take heed to yourselves, and to all the church over which the Holy Ghost hath made you overseers (literally επισκοπους, *bishops*). Similar to this is a passage in Titus, chap. i. 5., "For this cause left I thee in Crete that thou shouldest set in order the things that are wanting, and ordain *elders* (πρεσβυτερους) in every city." Ver. 7. "For a *bishop* (επισκοπος) must be blameless." In like manner the apostle Peter, 1 Epist. v. 1., "The *elders* (πρεσβυτερους) which are among you, I exhort, &c. Ver. 2., "Feed the flock of God which is among you, *taking the oversight thereof*, (επισκοπουντες,) discharging the office of *bishops*." So much for the heresy of Ærius as it respected the denial of any distinction between the office of bishop and presbyter. On the other three particulars of his heresy, it is, at this time of day, quite unnecessary for me to bestow a word in the way of apology.'

The scriptural grounds for the equality of the two clerical orders have seldom been more forcibly stated in so small a compass; and surely here the Romanist and the *jure divino* Episcopalian must be perplexed.

The author pays a just tribute to Vigilantius; who, at the beginning of the fifth century, made a zealous stand against the corruptions of the times, and who, on that account, was treated very roughly by St. Jerome. A specimen of the holy father's refutation of the supposed errors of his antagonist, which is given by Mr. Jones, shews that his logic was not superior to his temper, and that his reasoning manifested as little of solidity as his spirit possessed of Christianity. — This Vigilantius was a learned and eminent presbyter of the Christian church, who wrote a book against the institution of monks, the celibacy of the clergy, praying for the dead, invoking the martyrs, adoring their reliques, celebrating their vigils, and lighting up candles to them, after the manner of the Pagans. The work is unhappily lost.

In order to preserve the continuity of the apostolic succession, the Paulicians are admitted within the pale of the author's true church. It might be said that bias here carri him to an unjustifiable length; and the charge could not easil be repelled, did he not himself apprize his readers that h hypothesis rests not only in a considerable degree on conje ture, but is also opposed by the accounts of this sect whic antiquity has handed down to us. It is true that Mr. Gibbo states that Peter Siculus, from whom we have the fullest repo of them, writes concerning them "with prejudice and passion; and we must admit that the ill treatment and persecutio which they suffered from the church of that day, raise strong presumption in their favour: because, whether th church is or is not at this time to be denominated Ant christian, it cannot be doubted that, from a period not much lat than that which Mr. Jones fixes, it had abandoned the spir and violated the maxims of its founder. By their adversarie these sectaries were charged with denying the divinity of th Old Testament: but Mr. Jones is of opinion, that they onl disputed the construction assigned by the Catholics to that pa of Divine writ, by which they sanctioned their usurpation of temporal authority; and that on this account the latte charged them with rejecting its Divine origin. If, howeve we allow the claim of the Paulicians to the character whic the author ascribes to them, and in a matter of so muc importance can rest satisfied with conjectures and pre sumptions, his hypothesis will still remain defective. Eve on his own statement, it seems to betray a glaring incon sistency, which nothing but the spirit of system could preven him from perceiving. According to him, the ostensibl church ceased to be the true church as early as the thir century; and the schismatic Novatians, and not the self named orthodox, perpetuated the succession of the apostles On the extirpation of the Paulicians, which was the atchieve ment of an orthodox empress, the notorious Theodora, (who we are told, had a hundred thousand persons put to deat for being of this persuasion,) the author finds the true churc removed from Syria to the vicinity of the Alps, to Turin and to the vallies of Piedmont. In his judgment, Claud of Turin is in this age the sole apostle of truth, an becomes the founder of a succession of true believers, th Waldenses; who make a distinguished figure in ecclesiastica history, and who are worthy of all the encomiums which Mr. J and other Protestant writers bestow on them. Mr. Jone follows the late Mr. Robinson in his account of Claude, an adopts all his conjectures: but, even if we give credit to thei representations, an inconsistency still appears in the hypothesi which we think is fatal to it. Claude, if he preached th doctrine doctrines of the heretics and schismatics, always continued to be a member of the church, and lived and died in its communion; nay, according to Mr. Robinson, the followers of Claude did not quit the same communion till fifty years after the death of their founder. Here, then, we have the church ceasing to be the true church as early as the third century, but again find the true church within its pale in the ninth. It revives; and its boundaries are extended by a dignitary of the apostate and anti-christian establishment, for such it is on the principles of Mr. Jones, and such in a qualified sense we admit it to be.—While we notice this singular link in the succession, we applaud the fairness which has recourse to no art to conceal or disguise it. The author states facts correctly, and submits his theory to the judgment of his readers, without the slightest attempt to misrepresent. He relies on his hypothesis:—none are misled; and, in works of this kind, which are not destined for the learned, but for ordinary readers, this good faith cannot be too much commended. The philosophic Priestley, and the fanatics Haweis and Milner, have trodden this ground, but each comes far short of Mr. Jones in ingenuousness, and each more offensibly obtrudes his peculiar notions.

We own that, even from the period fixed by the present author, we entertain little predilection for the prominent characters in the church, and that we are much enamoured with the virtues and simplicity which belonged to the heretics: but we anathematize neither the church nor the heretics, although they anathematized each other. We believe, however, that faithful ministers and true followers of Christ belonged to each communion. Claude of Turin appears to have deserved much of the praise which Mr. Robinson and this writer bestow on him. Indeed, he seems to have possessed a very enlightened mind in a very dark age, and to have shunned neither labour nor danger in his incessant attempts to dispel the obscurity and to stem the corruption with which he was surrounded. We coincide with the author in thinking that his 'name and character are less known and honored in the present day than they deserve:' but we doubt whether the Waldenses sprang entirely from the preaching of Claude: a contrary supposition is warranted by the history of the times, and better agrees with the hypothesis of the present author. A dissident but continuing conformist rarely has followers beyond his own time; his labours are soon forgotten; and the public, as well as the body to which he belongs, are apt to regard him as an inconsistent or a weak brother. Clarke and Law have left no followers: they are only known to curious people to have dissented from the tenets of the church in whose communion they lived and died; while Whiston and Lindsey, by forsaking an establishment whose principles they did not approve, have laid the foundations of new churches which boast of numerous partisans.

Of the Paterines, who enter into the author's succession from the Apostles, he gives an account from the pages of Mr. Robinson's Ecclesiastical Researches: but, though Mr. R. possessed great industry and penetration, he was too much under the influence of prejudice, and was too fond of paradoxes, to allow him to be regarded as an authority in these matters. He examined, however, several points of church-history with distinguished acumen; and, looking at them through the medium of his own particular views, he brought to light many things which had not before been noticed: thus enabling persons, who were less under the influence of bias than himself, to form more correct notions of these subjects.

The Waldenses come next to be considered; and the remainder of the volume is devoted to the history of the various denominations under which they appeared, or of the various sects which have been confounded with them. Mr. Jones again follows Mr. Robinson in stating the origin of the name which they bore:

> ' "From the Latin word VALLIS," says he, "came the English word *valley*, the French and Spanish *valle*, the Italian, *valdesi*, the low Dutch *valleye*, the Provençal *vaux*, *vaudois*, the ecclesiastical *Valdenses*, *Ualdenses*, and *Waldenses*. The words simply signify *vallies*, inhabitants of vallies, and no more. It happened that the inhabitants of the vallies of the Pyrenees did not profess the Catholic faith; it fell out also that the inhabitants of the vallies about the Alps did not embrace it; it happened, moreover, in the ninth century, that one Valdo, a friend and counsellor of Berengarius, and a man of eminence who had many followers, did not approve of the papal discipline and doctrine; and it came to pass about an hundred and thirty years after, that a rich merchant of Lyons, who was called Valdus [or Waldo] because he received his religious notions from the inhabitants of the vallies, openly disavowed the Roman religion, supported many to teach the doctrines believed in the vallies, and became the instrument of the conversion of great numbers; ALL THESE PEOPLE WERE CALLED WALDENSES." This view of the matter, which to myself appears indisputably the true one, is also sanctioned by the authority of their own historians, Perrin, Leger, Sir S. Morland, and Dr. Allix.'

In a note, the author thus observes on the derivation given to the word by Mosheim, who traces it to a kind of slipper which the Waldenses wore as a distinguishing badge of the sect:

'But I agree with Mr. Robinson in thinking it very unlikely that people who could not descend from their mountains into neighbouring states, without hazarding their lives, through the furious zeal of inquisitors, should tempt danger by affixing a visible mark on their shoes.'

This objection has great force; while Mr. Robinson's etymology seems to be rational, and is supported by authority.

In his usual animated and concise manner, Mr. Jones next sketches the portrait of Peter Waldo, and gives a summary of his history. He is stated to have been an opulent merchant of Lyons, and the first who furnished his countrymen with the New Testament in their own language. Being obliged to fly from Lyons, he diffused his principles in Dauphiny, Picardy, Germany, and Bohemia; in the latter of which countries he is said to have ended his days. Whether this distinguished person gave his name to the Vaudois, or derived it from them, is a matter not settled: the Catholics contend for the former, while the partisans of these antient sectaries maintain the latter supposition. We wish that we could follow the author into this portion of his labours; in which, with ability and success, he details the sufferings and vindicates the principles of what we shall beg leave, with due submission to the Catholics, and to our *jure divino* Episcopalians, to call an interesting part of the flock of Christ: but we cannot do much more than refer our readers to the volume itself; which, if they have not access to Perrin, will amply repay them for perusing it. A passage, however, respecting the Waldenses of the valley of Fraissiniere, which the author borrows from the incomparable Thuanus, we cannot refrain from transcribing:

'"Their cloathing is of the skins of sheep — they have no linen. They inhabit seven villages; their houses are constructed of flint-stone, with a flat roof covered with mud, which when spoiled or loosened by the rain, they again smooth with a roller. In these they live with their cattle, separated from them, however, by a fence. They have also two caves set apart for particular purposes, in one of which they conceal their cattle, in the other themselves, when hunted by their enemies. They live on milk and venison, being, through constant practice, excellent marksmen. Poor as they are, they are content, and live in a state of seclusion from the rest of mankind. One thing is very remarkable, that persons externally so savage and rude should have so much moral cultivation. *They can all read and write. They know French sufficiently for the understanding of the Bible and the singing of Psalms.* You can scarcely find a boy among them, who cannot give you an intelligible account of the faith which they profess. *In this*, indeed, *they resemble their brethren of the other vallies.* They pay tribute with a good conscience, and the obligation of this duty is peculiarly noted in their confession of faith. If, by reason of the civil wars, they are prevented from doing this, they carefully set apart the sum, and at the first opportunity pay it to the King's tax-gatherers." '

In this age of scepticism and refinement, Mr. Jones is not ashamed to profess his adherence to the sombre creed of Calvin: but, while he pays a due tribute to the talents, learning, and indefatigable labours of that great Reformer, and professes a high veneration for his theological system, he enters his protest in glowing terms against that foul deed of persecution which has indelibly stained his reputation. It would be injustice to the present candid and judicious historian to withhold from our readers his statements under this head; and his testimony is of too much weight for us not to avail ourselves of it, at a moment when the professed enemies of the church of Rome are attempting to bring us back to cherish a spirit and maxims which disgraced the worst times of that church. In terms dictated by his own views, Mr. Jones is stating what we believe is strictly correct; namely, that several of the antient sectaries entertained notions with regard to church-government, and many points of doctrine, more consonant to those of our modern Dissenters than such as were supported by Luther and Calvin. Alluding to these Reformers, he says:

' But although we may readily conceive the pleasure which it must have yielded the Waldenses, to contemplate the labours of these great men in so glorious a cause, they do not appear to have acted precipitately in interfering with them, or soliciting a union of churches. The Reformers, with all their zeal and learning, were babes in scriptural knowledge, when compared with the more illiterate Waldenses — particularly in regard to the nature of the kingdom of Christ, and its institutions, laws, and worship in general. Luther, for instance, besides that both he and Calvin always contended for a form of national Christianity — a principle which, the moment it is received into the mind, must necessarily darken it as to the nature of the kingdom of Christ; Luther, with all his zeal against popery, was never able to disentangle his own mind from the inexplicable doctrine of transubstantiation, which he had imbibed in the church of Rome. He, indeed, changed the name, but he retained all the absurdity of the thing. He rejected the word transubstantiation, but insisted strenuously on a consubstantiation — that is, the bread and wine were not changed into the substance of the body and blood of Christ, but the body and blood of Christ were really and actually present in the elements of bread and wine, and were therefore literally eaten and drank by the communicants! And with respect to Calvin, it is manifest, that the leading, and to me at least, one of the most hateful features, in all the multiform character of popery adhered to him through life—I mean the *spirit of persecution*. Holding, as I do, many doctrinal sentiments in common with Calvin, I am prompted to speak my opinion of him with the less reserve. I regard him as a man whom the Creator had endued with transcendent talents, and have no doubt that he knew what "flesh and blood could never reveal to him." He seems to have been blessed with an extraordinary insight into the economy of human redemption, as revealed in the sacred writings; and his vast and capacious mind took a comprehensive grasp of a system which angels contemplate with wonder and amazement, and in which they study the manifold wisdom of God. No mere man, probably, ever surpassed Calvin, in his indefatigable labours, according to the measure of his bodily strength, in making known to others the unsearchable riches of Christ Jesus, both from the pulpit and the press; and his bitterest enemies cannot deny that the progress of the Reformation was wonderfully accelerated by his means. Yet with all these excellencies, Calvin was a persecutor! He had yet to learn, or at least to practise, that simple lesson of the kingdom of heaven, "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them." Calvin could never comprehend, how another man could have as great a right to think wrong, as he himself had to think right! And that *it is the sole prerogative of the King of Zion to punish his enemies and the corrupters of his truth.* Upon this point his judgment was perverted by the principles of his education, and unhappily for his own character and the cause of truth, his conduct was founded upon this erroneous judgment. His behaviour throughout the whole affair of Servetus is too well known to need any explanation in this place; but I conceive it to be the imperious duty of every friend to toleration and the rights of conscience, to express their marked abhorrence of this part of the character of Calvin. And more especially is it the duty of those, the similarity of whose theological creed to that which he contended for, hath subjected them to the imputation of being his followers. As an obscure and humble individual of that class, I strenuously deprecate every attempt to palliate the enormity of Calvin's conduct in the instance referred to, by pleading, as many have done, that Socinus was as bitter a persecutor as himself. For until it be made apparent to my understanding how two blacks constitute one white, I must regard such pleas as extremely ill judged. The truth is, and it ought to be avowed, that *the conduct of Calvin admits of no apology!* It was a violent outrage upon the laws of humanity as well as upon the laws of God, and has fixed a stigma upon the character of that otherwise great man, which will never be obliterated. But let not the enemies of the truth from this take occasion, as they too often have done, to identify the spirit of persecution with the doctrines which Calvin held. His conduct, in this particular, has drawn tears of lamentation and regret from the eyes of thousands, since his time, on account of the reproach it has brought upon the way of truth, "causing it to be evil spoken of," and it will continue to suffuse with all the consciousness of shame the cheeks of thousands yet unborn.'

Various well written episodes add greatly to the value of this work; among which deserve to be distinguished the author's accounts of the sacking of Rome by Alaric, the origin and progress of Monkery, and the rise and propagation of Mohammedanism;

hammedanism; and the volume, particularly the latter part of it, is enlivened by a great number of very interesting anecdotes.

The able narrative, which we have been perusing, leaves on the mind impressions of the utmost detestation for the spiritual tyranny exercised by the court of Rome. Providence never made use of so terrible a scourge to chastise mankind. No power ever outraged the interests of society, the principles of justice, and the claims of humanity, to the same extent. Never did the world behold such blasphemy, profligacy, and wantonness, as in the proceedings of this spiritual domination. It held the human mind in chains, visited with exemplary punishment every inroad on the domains of ignorance, and plunged nations into a state of stupidity and imbecility. Its proscriptions, massacres, murders, and all the various forms which its cruelties assumed, the miseries which it heaped on the objects of its vengeance, its merciless treatment of them, and the grasp of its iron sway, seemed at one time to leave no room to hope for the liberation of the human race. Surely nothing can appear more hideous than this power in its real colours: it leaves the mind full of horror at its cruelties!—We are aware of the use to which this true representation will be perverted; of the inference which the weak will draw and which the designing will contend are fairly drawn from it, namely, that the professors of a religion, which has in times past been such a curse to the world, are not now to be trusted with the exercise of their civil rights by a free community. To persons of little reflection, it may appear strange that men of understanding should acknowlege the spiritual supremacy of a chief whose predecessors were for centuries the instruments of inflicting such evils on the world, and who so long held the human mind in such bondage: but they do not consider in what degree the chance of birth determines religious persuasion. The simple acknowlegement of the supremacy of the Pope in spiritual matters, and submission to him in that character, ought to be separable from any admission of his temporal power, and cannot on any principle be construed into an approbation of the usurpations and enormities of which his predecessors have been guilty. As well, we think, might the English people be reproached and stigmatized for the cruelties of their ancestors towards the original inhabitants of this island, as the present generation of Catholics be held subject to any disabilities on account of the persecutions of the church of Rome in antient times. This is not the inference which the author draws from the same premises. It was no part of his intention to furnish weapons for the odious cause even of honest bigotry, much less for that of the hypocritical bigotry of the present day. He has merely adhered to the truth of history, and fairly pursued his subject; and no blame attaches to him, if a wrong use is made of that which it was his duty to relate. He does not fail on any fit occasion to bear manly testimony to the inspiring cause of religious liberty, to which he appears to be a well-informed and zealous friend.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1814.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 16. *The Predestined Thief;* or a Dialogue between a Calvinistic Preacher and a Thief condemned to the Gallows; in which is represented, in a Copy drawn as it were from the Life, the Influence of Calvinistic Principles in producing Crimes and Impieties of every Sort, and the Impediments placed by those Principles in the Way of the Sinner's Repentance and Amendment of Life. [With an Application to the recent Case of Robert Kendall, who was executed at Northampton, August 13. 1813.] Translated from the original Latin, published, London, 1651, without either the Author's or Printer's Name. 8vo. 3s. Nichols and Son. 1814.

The author of this dialogue, who is said to have been Archbishop Sancroft, holding the doctrine of rigid and exclusive Predestination in abhorrence, endeavours in a familiar way to argue mankind to reject it and to shun the preachers of it. In this dialogue, therefore, between the thief and the Calvinistic minister, the language of the original Calvinistic school is introduced, and its immoral tendency is placed in a strong point of view. The thief contends that 'the necessity of sinning was imposed on him on the part of God;' and the Calvinist, on his avowed principle of eternal and immutable decrees, is unable to vanquish the thief in argument. We give a short specimen:

'*Thief.* Are not all then elect?

'*Preacher.* By no means; for God of his own mere good pleasure, without any respective consideration of their future impiety or wickedness, *hath ordained the greatest part of mankind to eternal damnation!!*

'*Thief.* Tell me then, in good earnest, what think you of my state? Am I elect, or reprobate? Do you answer — or are you doubtful as to the enquiry? Speak! — involve not your meaning in uncertain expressions; think not one thing while you speak another; let your words and your judgment coincide; candidly and clearly tell me your sentiments. It is absolutely necessary I should know the truth. If I am reprobate, I should believe a lie; for Christ hath obtained no grace for the reprobate. If I am elect, I shall follow the truth, and not a lie; but, for enquiry into the truth, the Gospel is a necessary guide. Above all things, I would know whether I am elect or not.

'*Preacher.*

'*Peacher.* Every one in the Church is bound to believe Go commands; that by Christ he is redeemed, reprobate as well elect: but each in his peculiar way or manner. The elect is held believe that by his faith he is partaker of the election: the reproba that believing according to the design of God, he has less to be swerable for. And Christ is therefore offered for the reprobate, that they might be saved, but that, convicted by their unbelief, their refractory heart, they might be without excuse.

'*Thief.* You would say, then, God would have the reprobate lieve that which is a lie: nay, further, that he will damn th eternally for not believing what is a lie; now what hinders this c clusion? for the sentence of condemnation against the reprobate bei fixed, 'tis all one by what means they incur it.

'*Preacher.* Leave those subtleties, I pray you; and let us rat implore God to bestow upon you eternal salvation.

'*Thief.* If you chuse to pray for yourself, do so; I would spend my labour to no purpose in prayer: for, if I am reprobated shall never obtain salvation, though I were to spend a thousand ye in prayer. For a sentence of reprobation is fixed and immoveab so that, as the elect cannot possibly be reprobated, in the same man the reprobate cannot become elect.'

This extract is of the same tendency with the whole of the d logue, and represents the indiscreet mode of exhibiting doctri points by the *old* continental Calvinists: but we would not attrib the language here employed to our *modern* orthodox, who will p bably think that more acuteness than piety is displayed in t publication.

Art. 17. *Three Discourses delivered in the Parish Church of W bech, St. Peter's,* before the Wisbech Battalion of the Isle Ely Regiment of Local Militia, and published at the Request the Corps. By Jeremiah Jackson, A.M., late Fellow of John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2s. Gale and Co. 1813.

The Wisbech battalion of Local Militia has done itself little credit by desiring the preacher of these sermons to publ them; since they manifest much sound sense and clear discrimi tion, and place each subject discussed in a just and profitable po of view. We, too, owe Mr. Jackson our thanks for the satisfacti which we have received from the perusal of them, and have only request that, if these discourses come to a second edition, he wou affix a distinct title to each sermon. In the first, Mr. J. she that the strong expressions of our Saviour, on the subjects of pe and forgiveness, must be taken with some limitations; and that 't profession of a soldier is neither forbidden as unlawful, nor discou tenanced as in any respect inconsistent with the dictates of religio In the second, he displays with suitable animation our civil, religio and national blessings, — blessings which we ought highly to app ciate and manfully to defend; and in the last he draws the charact of the Christian warrior, pointing out the striking analogy wh subsists between the Christian and the military character.

These sermons are well adapted to the preacher's audience only by the choice of subjects, but by their plain yet nervous sty *and* by the patriotic animation which glows through the whole.

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Art. 18. *The Preacher's Manual;* containing, I. Two Essays, on Lay-Preaching, and on the Ministerial Character. II. Simplicity recommended to Ministers of the Gospel, (Third Edition.) III. Letters on Preaching, by Sheva, from the Evangelical Magazine. IV. Appendix; being various important Extracts from Claude, Doddridge, Mather, Watts, Newton, Cowper, Cecil, &c. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Williams and Son.

From a feeling of delicacy, the author of this manual conceals his name: but he does not hesitate to declare that he principally designs his work for the use of those who have not enjoyed the advantages of a regular education for the ministry; and while to persons of this description his hints and maxims are well adapted, the clergy in general may derive benefit from the serious consideration of them. The author appears to have studied his subject, and to have a right conception of the nature and object of the Christian ministry; and if, under certain circumstances, he advocates lay-preaching, he is not insensible to the advantages of a regularly educated clergy. — In his essay on *Simplicity*, he pointedly objects to 'that which proceeds from ignorance or stupidity; for,' says he, 'however the preaching of the Gospel may be esteemed foolishness, there is nothing commendable in foolish preaching.' The objects of his recommendation are, *Simplicity of Doctrine, Method, Style, Delivery*, and a minister's *public* duty and *private* conduct. On simplicity of doctrine, different classes of Christians will have different ideas: the present writer does not mean by it the most simple doctrines: but we shall not touch on the subject, nor follow him in his explanations; especially as this part of the manual has been previously published in a separate form.

The third part, intitled Letters on Preaching, under the four heads of doctrinal, practical, experimental, and allegorical, appeared in a periodical work in 1808. As a short specimen of the writer's mode of preaching to preachers, we shall take the conclusion of his advice on practical preaching:

'I know that some Calvinists have scrupled the addressing any exhortations to sinners, farther than to external acts of duty; that is, they have exhorted them to be hypocrites! for such are those whose religion is all external, and springs not from the heart! Those who can bend the Scriptures to this system, may bend them to any thing: nor would it require more force to make them speak the opinions of Socinus, or of Pope Pius. — "My son, give me thine heart," is the language of God from Genesis to Revelation; and the minister who does not aim at converting the heart, however able a divine or learned an expositor, is unworthy the name of a Christian minister. "But shall we try to convert the *non*-elect?" Yes, by all means; and if you succeed you will be forgiven! Some people seem afraid of inviting more to heaven than Christ has provided seats for. But he hath said, "In my Father's house are many mansions;"— and hath commissioned his servants, to the end of the world, to say, — "Yet there is room." '

In the selections from various writers, of which the Appendix is composed, a variety of instructive and amusing matter is offered to clergymen; and we may venture to report of this little volume that, if preachers habituate themselves to turn over its pages, and attend to the advice which it contains, their duty would be performed more honourably to themselves, and more profitably to their congregations.

Art. 19. *The Pulpit*; or a Biographical and Literary Account of eminent popular Preachers: interspersed with occasional Clerical Criticism. By Onesimus. Vol. II. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Carr.

Of Onesimus's first *pulpiteering-cruize*, we took some notice in our lxiiid Vol., N. S., p. 277., and the success which he has obtained has induced him to venture on another similar expedition: but, as the novelty of this species of reviewing has ceased, we doubt whether his second attempt will be equally acceptable with his first. To recommend himself to the members of the Established Church, he extends the warmest applause to her forms and faith, to her Liturgy, ordinances, and Articles; and being moreover one of her orthodox sons, he mourns the prevalence of Arminianism (which he calls the leaven of the age) among the leading ministers of the Establishment. That this zealous churchman should be attracted by the talents, and desirous of swelling the merited fame, of the most respectable of his own clergy, is not surprizing: yet it seems a little suspicious that his attachment to the Established Church should be so intimately blended with the most perfect knowlege of the concerns of the Dissenting Church; a knowlege which could result only from the fullest intercourse. Instead of confining himself to the consecrated walls of th national church, he wanders about "from Dan to Beersheba," visiting every conventicle that happens to have that inviting object calle a Popular Preacher; and if this popular preacher appears with th *nimbus* of evangelism surrounding his brow, he is puffed; no surely, for the purpose of *keeping down* his vanity. Sometimes, ho ever, this clerical critic preaches at preachers not in a style of flatte Against the Wesleyan Methodists, he employs a degree of sever which may be in character with a Calvinist, but not with a cr who, like an impartial judge, should hold the scales even betw contending sects. We transcribe a short passage in connection this remark:

'Arminianism is found subservient to Unitarianism.—Perhap transition is not difficult, from undervaluing the atonement of C to the denying of his divinity likewise! Pharisaicism is still roo hostile to Christianity.'

Surely, Onesimus does not mean to palm this on the world specimen of sound logic, or of a true Christian spirit! The r on Arminianism is supposed to be justified, because 'Astbu Pickersgill, two Methodist local preachers, left the Wesleyan and became Unitarians:' but the author might with equa have asserted that Calvinism is subservient to Unitarianism, Dr. Priestley and Mr. Belsham were once Calvinists. By an ar location of sentences, does he mean to intimate that those wh lieve the atonement and divinity of Christ are not Christian does, let him recollect that the same insinuation may be and that this mean sort of warfare may be kept up without any real advantage to either party. The short sentence, 'Pharisaicism is still rootedly hostile to Christianity,' seems to bear hard on those who believe less than the author; yet it does not in the smallest degree help to decide the question whether he believes too much or they believe too little. Without taking controversial ground, he pronounces 'Calvinism to be energetic.'

We cannot follow this writer through his various hints for the consideration of preachers, and his strictures on their pulpit-eloquence, but must now content ourselves with offering a list of those divines who are criticized in this volume. Of the clergy of the Establishment, we find the names of Dr. Randolph, late Bishop of London; Dr. Milner, Dean of Carlisle; Mr. J. Barrett; Mr. Budd; Mr. Burder; Mr. Clare; Mr. Cocker; Mr. De Coetlogon; Mr. Fancourt; Mr. Foster; Mr. Fry; Mr. Goode; Mr. Gurney; Mr. King; Mr. Lloyd; Mr. Ousby; Dr. Povah; Mr. Richmond; Mr. T. Sheppard; Mr. J. Sheppard; Mr. White; Mr. Wilkinson; and Mr. Wilson. — The following is the list of Dissenting Preachers: Dr. Clarke; Mr. J. Clayton, jun.; Mr. Carpenter; Mr. G. Clayton; Mr. Frey, who was born a Jew, but is now a Christian preacher, and editor of a beautiful edition of Van der Hooght's Hebrew Bible; Mr. Leifchild; Mr. Lyndall; Mr. Raffles; Mr. Smith, M. G. (letters which are meant to express *Miracle of Grace*, as Huntington's S. S. signified *Sinner Saved*); Mr. Stevens; Mr. Thorp; Mr. Townsend; and Dr. Winter.

Both lists might easily be enlarged, as is evident by the additional volume which Onesimus has announced; and, if he includes *Country Preachers*, he may ramble and write till both he and his readers are tired.

Art. 20. *Lectures upon Portions of the Old Testament; intended to* illustrate Jewish History and Scripture Characters. By George Hill, D.D., F.R.S. Ed., Principal of St. Mary's College, Saint Andrew's, &c. 8vo. pp. 522. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

No book is so replete as the Bible with details of important events, with striking incidents, with moral delineations, and with interesting characters. For this reason, no book is so extensively instructive, or furnishes matter so varied for the theological lecturer. Dr. Hill has manifested judgment in his selection of subjects; and, though he has avoided the discussion of all points of learned criticism, he has contrived with much ability to illustrate some of the most momentous portions of Jewish history, and to exhibit its prominent characters in a very edifying manner. Several writers have preceded Dr. H. in this province: but we do not recollect an individual who has executed the task more clearly, concisely, and satisfactorily.

After two introductory discourses on the importance and best mode of searching the Scriptures, the lecturer proceeds to analyze the characters of Abraham, Moses, Balaam, and Joshua; to descant on the Book of Judges; and to examine the important matter which is presented to us in the history of the Kings of Israel and Judah, as well as in the short memorials of the Babylonish captivity which remain.

We cannot afford our readers a clearer idea of the object of the preacher, than by transcribing, from the end of the second discourse, his account of his own design:

'The following lectures are intended as a specimen, in a few select instances, of the manner of deriving from the Old Testament that instruction in righteousness which is there treasured up for those who search the Scriptures; and they will afford you the most essential benefit, if they shall induce you to examine and compare the books of the Old Testament, some parts of which you are probably not much in the habit of reading, but every portion of which is declared by the Apostle Paul to be given by inspiration of God, and to be profitable.

'If you expect to find in these lectures curious discussions of doubtful points in antiquity, the conjectures of ingenious men upon questions which the Scriptures have left indeterminate, critical explanations of difficult texts, and attempts to reconcile the chronology of the Scriptures, with the periods and measures of time in heathen writers, you will be very much disappointed. In other places these things may be proper: here, they might shew the reading, but they would more certainly shew the folly of the speaker. I wish never to forget, that he who addresses you from the pulpit, ought to endeavour to "speak to edification, to exhortation, and to comfort," those things which all Christians may understand.'

Though Dr. Hill avoids the parade and formality of verbal criticism, he manifests a thorough acquaintance with Jewish history; and his commentaries on the passages which he selects for illustration—we cannot call them *texts* — are conceived in so easy and natural a style that the reader is at once amused and instructed. The Old Testament history is in general very imperfectly understood; and we may venture to assert that few will peruse this volume without feeling the warmest obligations to its author. Perhaps Dr. Hill is not quite correct in all points; and in his sketch of Saul's interview with the lady who is commonly called *the witch of Endor*, we should question the accuracy of his representation in the following passage:

'When He who alone has power to unbar the gates of death, did indeed bring Samuel from the grave, and shewed her an old man coming up covered with a mantle, the woman knowing this to be beyond her art, was filled with consternation.'

It does not appear by the account in the 1st book of Samuel that Saul ever saw the apparition. In Dr. Chandler's Life of David, this circumstance is amply discussed; and, as we have not leisure for the task, we refer Dr. Hill to that work. The lecturer, however, agrees with Chandler in his exposition of the passage applied to David, "A man after God's own heart:"

'David did not uniformly please God; for the Almighty exprest high disapprobation of some parts of his conduct. But he is called "a man after God's own heart," because the qualities by which he was distinguished, fitted him for accomplishing the purpose of heaven in giving Israel a king. The piety which had appeared in his encounter with Goliath settled the order of God's house, and trained the children of Israel to praise the Lord their God; and the valour and prudence, which had also adorned his youth, continued through a long and difficult reign, to give him the victory over his enemies, and to establish his kingdom in an orderly and flourishing condition.'

In the lecture on the second part of the history of Solomon, the author takes notice of doubts which have been entertained by those who have treated of Scripture-geography, respecting the position of Tarshish and Ophir; and, as the articles of the freight of the Tarshish ships, viz. " gold, silver, ivory, apes, and peacocks," do not seem to have been sufficiently considered, in ascertaining the sea on which this port must have been placed, we shall transcribe Dr. Hill's illustration of this subject:

' It was long a matter of uncertain conjecture where Tarshish and Ophir lay; and it appeared difficult to explain how a voyage to any country then known, should last for three years, and why the length of time should be always the same. But here, as in many other instances, the progress of knowledge, and that intimate acquaintance which we are acquiring with all the regions of the globe, have vindicated Scripture from objections which ignorance had suggested, and have placed, in the most striking light, the accuracy of the sacred historians. A late travellerer * directing our attention to the course of the winds in those seas, to the manner of navigation in ancient times, and to various circumstances of the voyage, has confirmed what former researches had rendered probable, and has demonstrated to the satisfaction of all who read his work, that the navy of Solomon, setting out from Eloth and Ezion-geber, past down the Red Sea, and entering through the straits of Babelmandel into the Indian Ocean, took there a westerly direction, by which it arrived in the second year at the kingdom of Sofala. This kingdom, which was sometimes called Ophir, lies on the coast of Africa, opposite to the island of Madagascar. It abounds with gold and silver mines, which appear to have been wrought from the earliest times; and Tarshish is the name of a place situate near these mines. The navy, after completing those parts of its cargo which were found in that country, sailed in the second year on its return home. It was obliged to touch at other places for some of the articles which constituted its cargo; and from the course of the winds which blow in those seas, it could not reach Eloth till near the end of the third year.

' The kingdom of Sofala is represented by some ancient authors, and by the traditions of the adjoining countries, as having belonged to the Queen of Saba, or Azab, who is called by the sacred historian the Queen of Sheba, and by our Lord the Queen of the South, and whose dominions extended as far as the Straits of Babelmandel, along that coast of Africa which is washed by the Indian Ocean. The quantity of gold and silver which was sent in every voyage from her mines to the land of Palestine, drew the attention of the Queen of Sheba; and having learnt by the intercourse of successive voyages, that the King of Palestine was no less famous for his wisdom than for the splendour of his court, she resolved, like other lovers of wisdom in those days, to travel to Jerusalem, in order to state to this living

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' * Bruce's Travels into Abyssinia.'

oracle,

oracle, difficulties which the measure of knowledge in her country was unable to solve, and to enlarge her mind, by visiting the court of a prince, whose fame exceeded that of all the kings of the earth.'

We have no doubt that a second edition of this useful work will be demanded; when, probably, Dr. Hill will improve some of his sketches of Scripture-characters.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *Woburn-Abbey Georgics; or, the Last Gathering.* A Poem, in Four Cantos. Cantos III. and IV. 8vo. pp. 48. Chapple.

In Vol. lxxii., N. S., p. 213., we took a rapid glance at the first two cantos of this satirical poem. The conclusion now before us is in the same style with the parts already noticed, involving in a stream of ridicule every individual who figures in the drama. The resolution of the present Duke of Bedford, respecting the discontinuance of the annual sheep-shearing-festivity at Woburn-Abbey, is the subject of deep regret with gentlemen-agriculturists; and the last gathering brings them together, not indeed in doleful dumps, but just in that humour which converts apparent seriousness into comicality. We think that more spirit is diffused through the satirical narrative in the last two than in the first and second cantos of this poem. The duet between Messrs. *Priest* and *Young* is skilfully managed; the sheep-shearing contest is well related; and the stroke of satire introduced unavoidably excites a smile. It is the dinner-scene, however, in the last canto, for which the poet reserves his powers of ridicule; and the speech of the Duke, in dismissing the agriculturists to find a dinner elsewhere, will be a very fair specimen of the talents of this laughing bard:

"Friends! 'tis my faith, I need not say,
That proud ye make me, here, to day;
As, round my hall and table, stand
The rank, weight, talents, of the land:
All in the common cause embraced,
To save the land from running waste;
To do, what's past the power of pen,
To make clowns farm like gentlemen.
Patterns we set—they do not heed;
Stock we improve—they will not breed;
Books we send forth—they cannot read.
Prizes I offer still in vain;
None irrigate, or under-drain:
And, where a candidate makes claim,
Coke on his farming cries out—'Shame!'
Year after year has thus o'er past,
And this not better than the last;
Why, then, should I your labours ask,
Farther, in this ungrateful task!
And why, the word I pledged in vain,
That aye this meeting shall remain,
Should ye not give me back again?

There, on their heads, disgrace befal;
Those dolted heads, that frustrate all!—
My Lords, and Gentlemen,—'tis o'er,
I ask your services no more;
But, long as my poor life endures,
My thanks, my house, my heart, are yours.
One parting word; and, then, farewell!—
Something, on which you all may dwell;
That royal maxim let me tell—
'Keep your land clean, and muck it well!'—
And, in your minds, sink this also—
'The more you sow, the more you'll owe;
The less you sow, the more you'll grow!'
Now, fellow-labourers, by my fay,
I've done my do, and said my say."

After this speech, silence for some time ensues. At last, however, Lord Somerville laments the death of Duke Francis: but, being badly seconded in this dirge, Lord Erskine delivers the meeting from its embarrassment by volunteering a song, which we might quote for its humour, but must reject and reprehend for its *inuendoes*.

This poet pays little regard to his rhimes; being more sollicitous to produce satirical effect than to polish his numbers.

Art. 22. *The Modern Antique;* or the Muse in the Costume of Queen Anne. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Pople. 1813.

Severe and addicted to censure as we are sometimes considered, we seldom have reason to dispute the free option of an author to affix his own title to his own work. The present anonymous gentleman, therefore, we hope, will attribute to none but the purest motives the slight alteration which we venture to suggest for the benefit of his book; and the rather as it would convert the first page into a kind of index to the whole. We think, and we recommend it to *his* serious thought, that by the mere substitution of "*Mother Goose*" for "*Queen Anne*," the author will honestly represent to his readers the true, genuine, and lively idea of what they are permitted to expect.

In adverting to its contents, whither shall we turn; to the right, or to the left; to the prose, or to the verse; in what chosen spot of all the mazes of this merry foolishness will our readers most willingly disport? Shall we pluck a flower or two from the preface, as we pass along; or shall we tear them by bunches and by clusters from those hot beds of nonsense, the Odes to Music, to Marriage, and to Genius? Shall we simply take measure of the author's head, and, wreathing a few chaplets from his songs, sonnets, and elegies, present to him, in this sweet and engaging form, the delicate tribute of our admiration? Each of these compliments might separately be injudicious and ineffectual. The field is vast, but our limits are small.—Good and gentle reader, accept a small specimen or two, and may they do thee good!

'ON A RAINY-DAY.

'Fair Nature in tears,
More lovely appears,
As seeming to borrow
Fresh charms from her sorrow;
Behold her lamenting,
Thus bitterly venting,
For ev'ry mishap,
For every flaw,
For every gap,
That saddens her law.'

'THE FLOWERET IN JUNE.

'As the flow'ret in June
So is man in his prime;
Ah! *that* perishes soon!
E'en so short is *his* time.

'See his blossom of youth!
Fall away in the Sun;
Ripe to reason and truth
See he drops, and life's done!'

Again, in a sort of dythyrambus, or rhapsody of verses excessively long and excessively short, we encounter the following *noisy words:*

'The vestibule reverb'd his wrath —
So thunder tells the lightning's scath;
Words could ill restrain his ire,
Rage involves the soul in fire.
To calm his anger,
Call not reason;
The trumpet's clangor
More in season;
Music alone can quell his rage,
Music the fatal storm assuage.

'CHORUS.

'To calm his anger
Call not reason;
The trumpet's clangor
More in season;
Music alone can quell his rage,
Music the fatal storm assuage.'

Sin Down, Down, Down, Derry Down!

Art. 23. *Sir Hornbook;* or Childe Launcelot's Expedition; a Grammatico-Allegorical Ballad. Pocket 4to. 1s. 6d. Sharpe and Hailes. 1814.

This little poem is not sufficiently plain to be substituted for the first pages of an English Grammar, but it is written with spirit, and it will both exercise and reward the ingenuity of its young readers.

rt. 24. *No Popery!* George Gordon's Ghost; Catholic Emancipation; the Papists' Petition; the Prince Regent's Reply; the Middle Course; and other Poems. By Harry Hornet, Esq. 4to. 5s. Eaton.

The gentleman who here assumes the name of Harry Hornet ould have us suppose that his poetry carries a sting in its tail; d the advocates for bigotry and intolerance may probably feel the arpness of his goad, though no poison be injected into the wound. e inlists his muse on the side of Catholic emancipation, and in xandrine stanzas pleads for liberal policy: but his verse is deficient several respects, and will not be fully tolerated even by the warmest vers of toleration. The very first line is sadly lame:

‘ In *George Third fifty-second,* what prescience e'er reckon'd?'

deed, this line is not English, and some of its brethren are in the me predicament.

‘ The Papists' Petition' contains the following stanzas:

‘ O! grant us “Catholic Emancipation;”
Let “ Freedom's charter” be to all unfurl'd!
So thy *three* kingdoms — *one* united nation
Shall form, whose union may defy the world!”

‘ Nor zealots heed, who seek, to dash our hope,
Thy facile mind of danger to convince!
Tho' as our church's head — we own the *Pope,*
Our Liege, and Country's head, we hail our *Prince!*

‘ Yes! for that Prince, and country, Truth declares,
Our lives, our fortunes — we with zeal expose;
Nor is our Loyalty less staunch than their's,
Who falsely libel all our sect, as foes!'

The Prince Regent is made to reply to the Catholic petition in a ry rough and uncourtly style. In the petition itself, the Prince reminded that

‘ “ *All* England's greatest Kings were *Catholics!*”
Such have our Edwards and our Henrys been;
Till the eighth Harry, in his lustful freaks,
“ Divorc'd religion, — to divorce his queen!”

which he thus answers:

‘ True! Eighth Harry, his old teazing spouse to divorce,
Nor be tied in his amours to “*good things*” of one sort,
Did divorce “ his old faith;” and I'd do that, or worse,
To be rid of “ *my cousin, my subject, and consort!*”

‘ And, as to the title, the Pope once conferr'd;
Why, what folly to think, “ change of faith has repeal'd it.'
Tis mine by succession; and who ever heard
“ Of a title renounc'd — 'cause a scoundrel entail'd it?”

Among the miscellaneous poems, is 'the Curate's Petition to the Chancellor;' and it is urged with such earnestness that we should not be surprised to hear that H. H. was himself a poor curate; yet we should be sorry to have our conjecture verified, for surely so unceremonious an application to the giver of livings is not likely to gain a living. The curate threatens his Lordship that he will turn cobler, unless he be comfortably beneficed:

> 'Hear, generous Lawyer! hear my prayer!
> Nor let my Freedom make you stare,
> In hailing you, "Jack Scott!"
> Tho' *now* upon the woolsack plac'd,
> With wealth, with power, with title grac'd;
> *Once* nearer was our lot!
>
> 'Say, by what name, the halpless bard
> May best attract your kind regard,
> Plain Jack, Sir John, or Eldon;
> To give, from your vast power of giving,
> A hungry priest some "little living;"
> And make the world say, "Well done!"
>
> 'In vain, without a patron's aid,
> I've pray'd and preach'd, and preach'd and pray'd;
> Applauded, but ill fed!
> Such vain eclat let others share;
> Alas! I cannot feed on air;
> I ask not praise, but bread!'—
>
> 'For *me*, unless hard Fate's obduracy,
> Relenting, grant me some "rich curacy,"
> No more my gown I'll use;
> The cure of human souls resigning;
> Prebends for cobler's stall declining,
> I'll mend the soles of *shoes!*
>
> 'Yet scarcely "nine dark lustres" past,
> 'Twere hard to see me at my "last,"
> An awful warning giving!
> Such dire reverse, good Lord! forbid it;
> Aid me; and let me say, "You did it;"
> On whom depends my "*living!*"

Mr. Hornet has point, but it is not duly polished. Elegant ver fication is not his forte.

NOVEL.

Art. 25. *The Towers of Ravenswold*, or Days of Ironside, a Romance. By William Henry Hitchener, of the Surrey Theat e, Author of "St. Leonard's Forest," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10 s. Boards. Chapple. 1814.

Really, this novel is almost beneath criticism; its story, or, as th e writer calls it, 'the intricate compound of this narration,' consists of improbabilities and anachronisms which would only excite a smil e, if, after having recounted them, he had not the imprudence to challenge his reader's admiration for 'the miracles which *Omnipotence could bring about*; rewarding the *helpless* animal, man, *according to his works*.' He must indeed be helpless who can admire this performance.

EDUCATION.

Art. 26. *The Elements of Arithmetic*, being a full, clear, and comprehensive Introduction to the Science of Numbers. For the Use of Schools and Private Tuition. In five Parts, each published separately. By E. Ward, Teacher of Writing, Geography, and Mathematics. 12mo. Part I. 10d. Part II. 1s. 3d. Wilkie and Robinson. 1813.

Mr. Ward's publication is judiciously divided into separate parts; each being of small size and price. The first and second carry the student as far as Compound Division, and explain the first four Rules of Arithmetic with clearness and accuracy. They contain many useful tables, and good practical questions: but the *Addition and Subtraction Table*, (Part I.) which is recommended to be learned by heart, appears to us to be quite unnecessary, and calculated only to puzzle the learner.

Art. 27. *The Spanish Guitar*; a Tale, for the Use of Young Persons. By Elizabeth Isabella Spence, Author of "Caledonian Excursion," "The Curate and his Daughter," &c. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Chapple. 1814.

We have often reported the claims and the faults of this fair writer. The present story has an useful tendency, and its simplicity may render it acceptable to very young readers. On the score of language, however, we have again to *exhort* Miss Spence. For instances: in page 55., 'a *contemptuous* figure' is put for *contemptible*: in page 71. Emily ought not to have been described as 'being silent, and *so abstract* that her mother spoke to her once or twice before she replied:' (*once*, we should think, was necessary:) and p. 75., 'Your conduct and benevolence *is*' must be noticed as false grammar.

Art. 28. *Difficult Pronunciation*, with Explanations of the Words, by which an approved Pronunciation of the most difficult English Words in common Use may be easily attained. Also the Pronunciation and Significations of Latin and French Phrases which frequently occur in English Reading. Second Edition, with Additions. 12mo. 6d. Kent. 1813.

This little work has the advantage of being cheaper and more portable than "The Pronouncing Dictionary," and it will certainly be useful to those who cannot obtain oral instruction for the pronunciation of various English words. We would, however, counsel such readers as are unacquainted with the French language to abstain from uttering its expletives, in preference to relying on the directions here given for their sound. What assistance can be gained from such an explanation as the following; *argent comptant*, *awr-zshŏng kōng-tŏng*? or from that of *valet de chambre*, *vŏla* *de shawm?* It were better at once to say *vally de sham*, with Squire Blunderhead.

HISTORY.

Art. 29. *Who wrote Cavendish's Life of Wolsey?* 4to. pp. 56. 18s. Boards. Rees. 1814. (Only 110 copies printed.)

In this tract, we are presented with a critical investigation which, although unpretending, discovers a masterly hand. So well is the author's task accomplished, that we are neither willing nor required to criticize the critic; on the contrary, we have ourselves been taking lessons from our able and accomplished brother. Become pupils, then, we lay aside our wonted functions, and shall confine ourselves to the formation of such an abstract and such selections from these attractive pages as shall apprize our readers of their curious and well stated contents.

Sir William Cavendish, the fortunate founder of the two noble houses of Devonshire and Newcastle, has been long supposed to be the author of the work which is the subject of the present inquiry: but his possession of that title has not been undisputed. It is denied by the present inquirer; and he ascribes the biography to George Cavendish of Glemsford in the county of Suffolk, an elder brother of Sir William, and who spent a great many years in Cardinal Wolsey's service. In support of this proposition, the author adduces both external and internal evidence. Lord Herbert, in his life of Henry the Eighth, where the first mention of the disputed work occurs, assigns it to George Cavendish: but the author of the life of Sir William Cavendish, in the Biographia Britannica, (who, most probably, was Dr. Campbell,) and Collins, in his Peerage, assert that this must have been a mistake of Lord Herbert, and that the real author was Sir William Cavendish: but they allege not a single proof in favour of either supposition. This renders the point in dispute a question of authority between two modern writers, and one who lived at the time at which the transaction happened.

The arguments drawn from internal evidence are that the author of the life of Wolsey in question was hostile to the Reformation, and must have been a Catholic, which description exactly applies to Mr. George Cavendish; while Sir William Cavendish was a zealous Protestant, and actually held the situation of one of the auditors of the Court of Augmentation. The writer of the disputed Life had evidently not been favoured by fortune; for it contains the following remark, which could not well have been made by Sir William Cavendish: "Here," says he, "may all men note the chaunces of fortune that followethe some whome she intendeth to promote, and to some her favor is cleane contrary, though they travaille never so much, with al the painfull diligence that they can devise or imagine: *whereof for my part I have tasted of the experience.*"

It is then shewn that this biography of Wolsey was written abou the middle of the reign of Queen Mary, the very time in which Si William Cavendish is known to have been living in great luxury his mansion of North Aubrey, near Lincoln.

The author of the Life having related that the King had submitt to be cited by the two legates, and to appear in person before the

questioned touching the matter of the divorce, he breaks into
cclamation :

'orsoothe it is a world to consider the desirous will of wilfull
s, when they be set and earnestly bent to have their wills ful-
wherein no reasonable persuasions will suffice; and how little
egard the dangerous sequell that may ensue, as well to them-
as to their subjects. And above all things, there is nothing
aketh them more wilfull than carnall love and sensuall affection
uptuous desire, and pleasures of their bodies, as was in this case;
in nothing could be of greater experience than to see what in-
ns were furnished, what lawes were enacted, what costly edifica-
of noble and auncient monasteries were overthrowne, what diver-
opinions then rose, what executions were then committed, how
noble clerkes and good men were then for the same put to
, and what alteration of good, auncient, and holesome lawes,
nes, and charitable foundations were tourned from reliefe of the
to utter destruction and desolation, almost to the subversion of
ble realme. It is sure too much pitty to heare or understand
ings that have since that time chaunced and happened to this
. The profe thereof hath taught us all Englishmen the ex-
ce too lamentable of all good men to be considered. If eyes be
ind men may see, if eares be not stopped they may heare, and if
be not exiled the inwarde man may lament the sequell of this
ious and inordinate love. Although it lasted but a while, the
thereof is not yet ceased, which our Lorde quenche and take
lignation from us ! *qui peccavimus cum patribus nostris, et in-
gimus !*"

is passage could scarcely have been penned by a person who
ell affected to the Reformation, as Sir William Cavendish un-
onably was; who, as we have observed, held an office which arose
f it, and had been one of the Commissioners for visiting and
the surrenders of divers religious houses.

e present author, in accounting for the great number of manu-
s existing of this disputed work, and for the great length of time
transpired between the period of its being written and that of its
published, observes that 'scarcely any work of this magnitude,
osed after the invention of printing, has been so often trans-
. There is a copy in the cathedral library at York which once
ged to Archbishop Matthew; another very valuable one in the
y of the College of Arms, presented to that learned society by
y Duke of Norfolk; another in Mr. Douce's collection; another
public library at Cambridge; another in the Bodleian. There
o in Mr. Heber's library; two at Lambeth; two in the British
um. The reason of this multiplication of copies by the laborious
ss of transcription seems to have been this: the work was com-
in the days of Queen Mary by a zealous Catholic, but not com-
l to the press in her short reign. It contained a very favour-
epresentation of the conduct of a man who was held in but little
n in the days of her successor, and whom it was then almost
rous to praise. The conduct of several persons was reflected on
were flourishing themselves, or in their immediate posterity, in

the court of Queen Elizabeth: and it contained also the freest censures of the Reformation, and very strong remarks upon the conduct and character of Anne Boleyn, the Cardinal's great enemy. It is probable that no printer could be found who had so little fear of the Star-Chamber before his eyes as to venture the publication of a work so obnoxious: while such was the gratification which all persons of taste and reading would find in it, from its fidelity, its curious minuteness, its lively details, and above all, from that unaffected air of sweet natural eloquence in which it is composed, that many among them must have been desirous of possessing it. Can we wonder then that so many copies should have been taken between the time when it was written and the year 1641, when it was first sent to the press; or that one of these copies should have found its way into the library of Henry Pierrepoint Marquis of Dorchester, who was an author, and a man of some taste and learning?"

We have been sitting down to a grateful repast, and we rise from it reluctantly. At parting, may we take the liberty of requesting that the accomplished author would favour the public with an edition of the work in question, with notes?

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *The Christian Conqueror*, or Moscow burnt, and Paris saved. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1814.

A merited compliment to the Emperor Alexander, for his generosity and forbearance in the brilliant hour of victory. The writer calls himself a Country Gentleman: but, from the title which he has given to his hero, and from his liberal quotations from Scripture, we should suspect him to be a clergyman. To the Grand Duchess of Oldenberg, the Emperor of Russia's sister, (lately in London,) this tract is dedicated, and she must be pleased with the following sentence as applied to her brother: 'The *Christian Conqueror* of the present day has introduced into the world a new character, which philosophers have delighted to contemplate in the abstract, but have despaired of seeing realized in fact.'

Art. 31. *An Historical View of the Domestic Economy of Great Britain and Ireland*, from the earliest to the present Times; with a comparative Estimate of their efficient Strength, arising from their Populosity and Agriculture, their Manufactures and Trade, in every Age. A new Edition, corrected, enlarged, and continued to 1812. By George Chalmers, F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 496. 13s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

In this edition, Mr. Chalmers brings his useful and valuable work down to the present time. We mentioned it on its first appearance, in our lxviiith Vol., O. S., p. 51. As usual, he triumphs over his opponents in statistics; and he rather broadly insinuates that the errors of some of them are wilful, and maintained with a view to injure their country and embarrass its government. Of his own accurate statements, on the contrary, the motives are most worthy; in publishing them, he had it not in contemplation to secure the favour of men in power, by assisting their designs of increasing the burthens of the people: but, in what he has done, he has been actuated solely by the love of truth and the desire of rendering justice to his subject.

MINERALOGY.

Art. 32. *Elements of Crystallography*, after the Method of Haüy; with, or without, Series of Geometrical Models, both solid and dissected, exhibiting the Forms of Crystals, their Geometrical Structure, Dissections, and general Laws, according to which the immense Variety of actually existing Crystals are produced. By Frederick Accum, Operative Chemist, Lecturer on Practical Chemistry, on Mineralogy, and on Chemistry applied to the Arts and Manufactures; Member of the Royal Irish Academy, Fellow of the Linnæan Society, &c. With Copper-plates. 8vo. pp. 454. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

As every man of science, who is desirous of becoming acquainted with the curious and recondite laws of mineral crystallization, will naturally resort to the original writings of Romé de Lisle and of the Abbé Haüy, the present elementary treatise, which is illustrated by a great variety of diagrams, and by the more tangible expedient of wooden models, is chiefly calculated to accommodate those students who are little conversant in the French language, or in the principles of geometry. A detailed analysis of its contents would scarcely be intelligible without the figures; would require much more room than we can spare; and would, at best, exhibit only the sketch of a system which is now generally understood by professed mineralogists, and the merits and defects of which we have, in the course of various articles, endeavoured to appreciate.

Mr. Accum's original design is well conceived, and the execution of it will furnish considerable facilities to the apprehensions of the English tyro in mineralogy: but a somewhat more methodical arrangement of his materials, a reduction of the size of his type, the suppression of *one* set of voluminous contents, the retrenchment of a few irrelevant sections, and, above all, a due degree of respect to accurate printing and to the first principles of English grammar, would have enabled us to report the result of his labours in terms of more unqualified approbation. For a work which has the slightest pretensions to science, the list of acknowleged errata is sufficiently numerous: but various slips and inaccuracies remain to be corrected. We find, for example, *parallix* for *parallax*, *noxius* for *nonius*, *enduced* for *endued*, *is* a polygon for *in*, arrangement *are*, *an* extreme mechanical *divisions* and *suspensions*, solutions which *yields*, the principal angle *are*, the three first sections which there present *itself*, with several incomplete sentences, &c. &c. Gahn, the Swede, is styled a *German* philosopher; and the theory of crystallization is said to have been *created* by Haüy, as if Linné, Bergmann, and Romé de Lisle had never meditated on the subject. — Again, the non-crystallization of basalt ought not to be gratuitously assumed, especially in a publication destined to state the leading facts and first principles of a science. The varieties and irregularities exhibited by columnar basalt are by no means irreconcileable to the crystallizing process;

which, from various disturbing causes, or from the nature and proportions of the composing ingredients, is liable to deviations from the strictness of form. Such deviations, in prismatic basalt, scarcely detract from the *general* aspect of its regularity, which some of the most ingenious observers of nature have not hesitated to ascribe to crystallization, properly so called. Nay, they have even applied the term *basalt*, or the expression *basaltic crystals*, to mineral substances of which the forms are usually prismatical. Thus, Linné, Cronstedt, Wallerius, De Born, and Kirwan, include under *basalt* all the varieties of schorl, cross-stone, tourmaline, &c., which nobody presumes to exclude from the list of crystals; though few of them occur with configurations as neat and decided as those of basaltic columns. Romé de Lisle himself, yielding to the influence of evidence, had comprehended the latter in his essay on crystallography: but, perceiving that their anomalies occasionally infringed on the geometrical precision of his system, he had afterward recourse to a sort of intermediate mode of aggregation, removed both from confused mixture and from chemical crystallization: so that, according to his theory, the prismatic forms of basalt, their plane faces, and sharp angles, (prolonged, sometimes without apparent defect, to the height of fifty feet,) thousands of columns, of equal dimensions, and of which by far the majority present the same number of faces, are merely the effect of irregular shrinking. As the polygonal forms, however, which the portions of fused metals assume in cooling, are also induced by shrinking, (that is to say, by a more or less regular approximation of their particles,) and as this operation of nature is, without challenge, denominated crystallization, the doctrine involves a distinction of terms without a difference. Several observations of Dolomieu and Ferber lead to similar conclusions: but we cannot here prosecute the argument at greater length.

The production of wood-stone, by the *substitution* of the particles of mineral for those of vegetable matter, is in like manner open to controversy; and, though honoured with the suffrage of the Abb Haüy, it appears to be pressed with very formidable difficulties Thus, trunks of trees, from 20 to 40 feet in length, which are buri at a small depth from the surface, in sandy beds, are, from the bark to the very core, converted into siliceous matter; though the san which is in immediate contact with them, on every side, in no degre participates of the converting influence. Now, we cannot easil conceive that the liquid, which held in solution the stony matte that is supposed to have assumed the place of the woody particle should not have agglutinated, and converted into quartzose sand-ston the sand which immediately surrounds the petrified wood. With r spect to the ligneous organization, which the advocates for substitu tion conceive to be destroyed, we may observe that not only th most minute fibres have perfectly preserved the form and situatio which they manifest in the fresh state of the wood, but even all the appropriate shades of colouring. If, therefore, the stony had take the place of the ligneous particles, the whole petrified mass wou have been of an uniform colour; since the same stony matter wou have successively filled all the vacancies occasioned by the retreat

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ligneous particles. Besides, if we carefully examine the state of description of petrified wood, we can perceive no symptom of vious decomposition. Some specimens exhibit not only the most re organization, with the shades of each fibre, but worms which themselves converted into agate; with their external surface tish and opaque, and their interior characterized by waving zones, different tints, which appear to represent their intestines. The ual circles of the wood, and the medullary prolongations from the tre to the circumference, are distinctly traceable; and it is par- larly worthy of remark that, in these and similar specimens, the unsilicified parts are precisely those which had suffered decom- tion. In the cabinet of M. Le Camus, are specimens of agatized d, found at Naufle, near Grignon, which contain a multitude of larvæ of insects, retaining their natural form. In others, the ms are observed to be moveable in their cavities, a circumstance concileable with the infiltration of a quartzose fluid, which would consolidated the mass. Saussure quotes a fossil crab, of which the ova under the tail are petrified. These and other facts, ch might be mentioned, would induce us to believe that the sili- is petrifaction in question is effected very rapidly, and seem to ude all idea of decomposition and the tardy process of successive titutions; because, from the moment in which soft bodies, like gots or worms, are affected by putrefaction, their forms can no er be preserved.

till, after all the exceptions which even the rigour of criticism make to the merits of the present performance, we may safely mmend it as an useful and popular introduction to the science of tallography.—The models, to which the text refers, may be pro- d either directly from the author, or through the medium of the ksellers.

SINGLE SERMON.

33. *On the Causes and Remedy of Schism.* By L. Blakeney, .M., Curate of Thorndon and Bedingfield, Suffolk. 4to. Wilson. 1813.

he Bishop of Norwich, to whom this sermon is dedicated, must been amused by Mr. Blakeney's curious mode of disappointing critics, who, he concludes, will expect adulation in the address curate to a bishop. In the very act of disclaiming all flattery, he whelms the R.R. prelate with a dose of it that is sufficient to make n man sick, and then slyly hints at the difference between a *cure* a *benefice*. In this way, he deceives the critic's foresight! If easoning in the sermon does not succeed better than his cunning in ledication, he will not come off with very flying colours. We tell Mr. B., *in limine*, that, for a Protestant clergyman, *Schism very difficult corpse to bury;* and that, unless by the attempt he change a *cure* into a *benefice*, he had much better let it alone: , while he himself claims the right of protesting against the ch of Rome, his brother-protestants will assert the same right of sting against *his* church; and if he should lament to the Catholic-priest the growth of schism, the priest would turn short and charge him with being the cause of that evil of which he complains. Mr. B. is fully aware of the consequences of diffused knowlege, and deprecates the employment of persecution in order to produce uniformity of opinion; or the external appearance of it: but he does not seem to be sufficiently enlightened respecting the real sources of dissent from the Established Church. It is ridiculous to attribute the diversity of religious opinions in the Christian world to the love of novelty; or to imagine that those, who object to the doctrines of the 39 Articles, can be induced to forsake the conventicle by an eulogy on the *sublimity* of the Liturgy. As Mr. B. cannot or will not see the true causes of separation, or schism, he is not qualified for prescribing a remedy. Much, therefore, as we applaud the liberality of some of his remarks, we cannot think that his discourse is on the whole likely to produce any good effect.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Rev. W. Lisle Bowles, whose *Sonnets* and other poetical works are well known, has avowed himself to us as the author of the poem intitled the *Missionary*, on which we bestowed merited commendation in our Number for April last; and at the same time he informs us that a new and corrected edition of it will appear in the course of this year, the favor of the public having disposed of the first impression.

P. T. of Birmingham will have the goodness to summon a little patience to his aid. He is perhaps very little aware of the multitude of publications which claim notice in our pages. If he will vigilantly keep a list of all the new works which issue from the press in the course of six months, before he writes another poem, he will have some idea of the nature of the case, and will give us time to read and review that which he *has* written.

We do not yet know what reply to make to *Inquisitor:* but we will consider the matter to which he refers.

S. R. arrived too late for present consideration.

☞ In some copies of the Review for May, an error appears in the substitution of the name *Menelaus* for *Mænalus*, in page 3. line 9 from the bottom, and p. 14. l. 8. from the bottom.

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxiii. of the M. R. was published on the 1st of June, with the Number for May.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1814.

ART. I. *The Character of Moses established for Veracity as an Historian, recording Events from the Creation to the Deluge.* By the Rev. Joseph Townsend, M.A., Rector of Pewsey, Wilts. 4to. pp. 454. With twenty-one Plates. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

WITH unusual form, this volume is ushered into public notice by *two* Introductions. In the first, we are apprized that the work is the result of half a century of travel and geological research, of extensive and appropriate reading, and of personal intercourse with some of the most eminent surveyors of rocks, mountains, and strata; and, in the second, we are reminded of the dissonant sentiments of Cudworth and Huet with respect to the identity of Hermes and Moses.

We are next presented with *two* chapters, the first of which treats of the genuineness of the Pentateuch; and the second, of the credibility of the Mosaic history, deduced from internal and external evidence. In these, however, we can discern neither novelty nor ingenuity of argumentation; nor can we refrain from intimating a suspicion, that the pious author has made a toilsome but fruitless parade of learning and philosophy. That certain trains of events are recorded in our sacred books cannot be called in question; and that the occurrence of them, combined with subsequent traditions, ought to have convinced the Jews that the events themselves were accomplished by the immediate interposition of Heaven, will scarcely admit of discussion: but the sceptic of the present day may call for proofs of the alleged miraculous facts, or of the inspiration of the books in which they are recorded. If either of these points could be satisfactorily established, no candid inquirer could impeach the veracity of Moses as an historian: if, for example, he has furnished us with a transcript of real occurrences, we can obtain no more powerful evidence of divine agency; or, if it can be demonstrated that his narratives were dictated by the superintending influence of Deity, the most pertinacious dogmatist must yield assent to their truth, however incompetent he may be to reconcile their spirit and tendency to his preconceived notions of an allwise and benevolent Being. Had Mr. Townsend settled these fundamental principles, he might have spared himself and his readers the trouble of those tedious inductions, by which he labours to reconcile present appearances with the Mosaic account of the Creation and the Deluge; because every rational mind must then have believed the scriptural record, independently of all appearances whatever. He might then, too, have dispensed with the slight and obscure notices of the Jewish story which heathen writers have conveyed to us, the crude and fanciful legends of classical cosmogonies and mythology, and the absurd creeds of barbarous tribes, which, though they may present some general and remote points of resemblance to the outlines of the book of Genesis, furnish only conjectural and feeble evidence of their having proceeded from the same source. The very converse, indeed, of this latter supposition has been seriously maintained: but, granting that the impurer theogonies of subsequent periods were copied from the Mosaic writings, or borrowed from the traditions to which those writings gave rise, the question concerning the truth of the matters related still recurs, and we are left without a ray of biblical criticism to direct us to the history of the original documents. Nay, we are not distinctly apprized of some of the strongest objections which have been urged against the ascription of the books in question to Moses, and which we have more than once had occasion to examine in the long course of our professional career. We grant, indeed, that the observance of the seventh day of the week, in many countries of the world, seems to bespeak affinity with the Jewish institutions: but the leading reason, which the sacred text assigns for the hallowing of that day, is not unattended with difficulty; since it implies a repose from labour, as if fatigue could be attributed to Omnipotence, or as if a spirit of boundless benignity required to pause in doing good.

The analogy between the golden age and the state of Adam and Eve in Paradise is somewhat forced; at least, we cannot easily suppose that the former was suggested by the latter, since the one refers to the condition of the whole race, and the other only to the two progenitors of the stock. In the one case, also, the change from happiness to misery is represented as instantaneous; and, in the other, we have intermediate stages of blended good and evil. The golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages may, in fact, be considered as mere poetical embellishments of a very prevalent but erroneous notion, that the human race has gradually dwindled and degenerated both in n physical and mental properties, and that " the former days vere better than these." The other instances of coincidence, etween the Mosaic account of the fall of man and the opinions nd tales of antient and modern heathens, appear to us to be o faint or fanciful that they cannot be seriously maintained in he way of argument. Neither can we allow that the idea of *acrifice*, with a view to propitiate the wrath of imaginary deities, s not natural to man, when placed in a state of ignorance and uperstition; or that the savage practice of immolating human ictims originated in a positive command from heaven. To the ame exalted source the author is willing to trace the practice f *paying tithe*: but, at this rate, we might attribute every hunan institution of extensive prevalence to direct communicaions with the Supreme Being.

Proceeding in the same strain of reasoning, Mr. Townsend nters on the grand theme of his labours, namely, the *Deluge*; nd, in his accustomed manner,—without stopping to inquire vhether the passage which describes this event may not be inerpreted allegorically, whether it may not allude to some vioent but partial inundation, whether the dimensions of the ark vere commensurate to the tranquil maintenance of all the landnimals and birds which were directed to occupy its compartnents, whether the windows of this vessel could transmit light, nd withstand the pressure of the enormous torrents from above, kc.,—he quietly appeals to the fables of antient mythology, nd to the mention of a flood, of some sort, in the scattered otices which have been transmitted to us respecting the supertitions of different countries:

> ' Traditional reports have been collected and brought forwards by very apologist for revelation, from the first ages of Christianity to he present day, and may be referred to in Stillingfleet, Gale, and Ramay: but independently of divine authority, the most convincing evilence is to be sought for in the records which remain engraved in the leepest mines, and on the most elevated mountains.
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> ' In the display I am about to make of this natural evidence, cattered over the surface of the earth, I shall simply state my facts, nd then examine what inferences may fairly be derived from them. nd for this purpose, I shall first explore one small tract of country, hat the attention of the young geologist may not be distracted by a nultiplicity of objects crowding at once upon his view. When he as surveyed this island, he may be the better qualified for more disant excursions, and be able to compare its strata and extraneous ossils with those of every other portion of the globe. He will be hus prepared to follow me in my general conclusion, and will be onvinced that the Mosaic account of the deluge is agreeable to ruth.'

The strata which are particularized are those of *chalk*, *sand*, the *superior oolite*, *calcareous grit*, *coral rag*, *Kelloway rock*, *corn brash*, *forest marble*, the *great oolite*, the *inferior oolite*, *lyas*, *red ground*, *coal* and *subjacent strata*; under which last are included *mountain lime-stone*, *iron*, *argillaceous* and *siliceous schist*, *pudding-stone*, *porphyry*, *gneiss*, *micaceous schist*, and *granite*. 'Between these occasionally basalt appears, but not in the vicinity of Bath. — Such is the usual succession of strata; but in some places the intermediate beds are wanting, and therefore at Chard the chalk and lyas meet together; and the oolite reclines in Portland on the lyas beds, but at Mells upon the mountain lime-stone.'

It is shewn that an arrangement nearly similar takes place in Wales, Ireland, and Scotland; and that an analogous structure of the superficial parts of the globe has been observed in France, Spain, and various other countries. This simple fact, if accurately ascertained, may suggest practical results of the greatest utility, whatever be the inferences which theorists may be inclined to deduce from them. The thickness of the strata, it is admitted, is subject to great varieties, whether we compare them with one another or with themselves in different places: but an attempt is made to calculate, as nearly as it is possible, their usual thickness in the west of England, and on our southern coasts.

'The chalk has been commonly estimated at three hundred feet. At Selbourn, in Hampshire, this, by actual measurement, has been found, as Mr. White informs us, to be its thickness. On Canford Heath, in Dorsetshire, it is two hundred and eighty feet. In the Isle of Wight it has been laid open to the depth of two hundred feet; but at Slindon, near Chichester, Lord Newburgh's well is sunk three hundred and twenty feet, in chalk. At Sline House, near Warlingham, in Surrey, Mr. Banion sunk his well three hundred and twenty-six feet, through the chalk, and yet his house is not on the hill, but in the bottom. At Sanderstead the wells are three hundred and sixty feet deep. At Wimbledon six hundred feet, including the superincumbent alluvial beds. In Kent, by the assistance of my valuable friend General Donkin, I have been particularly fortunate in procuring measurements of four wells, on the chalk ridge, near Sittingbourne. At Torry Hill, on the summit of the ridge, the well is three hundred and sixty-three feet deep, and the water rises sixty feet in the well.

'A mile further on the same ridge, at Minsted, Mr. Patterson's well is three hundred and ten feet deep, and contains seven feet of water.

'Mr. Tylden's well, at Milsted, a mile lower down, is two hundred and twenty-eight feet deep, and the water rises fifty feet.

'At Sittingbourne the wells are twenty feet deep; and below Sittingbourne the springs break out.

'In all these wells, the water undoubtedly flows on the same bed of clay which appears under the chalk in the higher parts of Wiltshire.

'These wells are sunk in *chalk*, and the well-diggers find water before they get through the bed, that is, when the pressure of water upwards overcomes the resistance of the chalk to its ascent. This perfectly accords with the well-known laws of Hydrostatics.

'The well at Dover Castle was sunk three hundred and sixty feet through the cliff, and contained twenty-one feet of water in September, 1784. Lord Spencer's well, at Maidstone, is the same depth.

'I have no doubt, therefore, that the whole thickness of the chalk stratum is more than four hundred feet. My valuable friend, Mr. Parkinson, states the upper bed at six hundred and fifty feet.'

The sand-beds, taken together, are supposed to be not less than 300 feet in thickness; the superior oolite, in some places, 20, and in others 40 feet; the calcareous grit and the coral rag seem to vary from 8 to 30 feet, each; the Kelloway rock, from 3 to 6; the corn-brash, near Bath, does not exceed 12; the forest marble is at least 40; the great oolite, in its thickest portions, 140; the inferior oolite, about 40, and its subjacent sand not much less; the lyas (blue and white) has in some places been penetrated through 60 feet, though some of the upper beds are wanting; the red ground, comprehending its marl-beds, grit-rocks, &c., has been found of various thicknesses, from 100 to 180 feet, or even more.

'Beyond the limits (says Mr. T.) which I have traced, it is not easy to ascertain the thickness of the several strata which remain hereafter to be noticed. First, because, being hard, they have not, to the same degree as the preceding strata, been subject to attrition. Secondly, because the spirit of adventure, on which deep perforations must depend, has been chiefly confined to districts, where either coal strata or the precious metals have been found.'

The natural dip of the superior strata is to the S. E., which is the prevailing inclination in almost every part of Europe: but the coal-strata dip in various directions; and, beyond them, in proceeding westward, the schistose strata either dip to the N. W. or assume a nearly vertical position. The author enters into various particulars relative to the rapidity of the dip in the several strata, as far as he has been able to determine it by accurate admeasurement; and with his domestic data he compares appearances in different parts of the world. The range or direction of the strata, as discovered by the horizontal section, is found, in this country, to be generally N. E. and S. W.; and the same observation seems to be applicable to other regions that have been geologically explored. In the more specific illustration of this latter position, the British strata again pass in review; and the coal-fields, or elliptical basins of coal and mountain lime-stone, are enumerated and delineated with a considerable degree of interest and minuteness.

A section is next devoted to the *bassetting* and dislocations of the strata. The *basset* or *crop* of a stratum is its termination at the surface; and this termination, if bold, elevated, and abrupt, is called the *scarp*. The crop, owing to the weathering of the materials, the mouldering of an elevated scarp, the deficiency of the superior portion of a bed, &c., is not always easily detected. 'In mountainous countries it is remarked, that every ridge, or chain, has on one side a gentle slope, whilst the opposite is either steep or even precipitous. The angle (which) these slopes inclose depends on the tenacity of the materials which originally composed the scarp. If these are hard, the angle will be acute; if soft, it will be proportionably obtuse. Hence it is, that even in countries which are new to him, the skilful observer will, at the greatest distance, judge what substances compose the hills and mountains which present themselves to view.'

From these and other general observations, Mr. Townsend passes to the indications of the bassetting of several of our native strata, the various peculiarities attending them, and some of those striking appearances for which several writers *conveniently* account by the term *dislocation*. A register of such appearances is, at all events, desirable; and, as Mr. Townsend usually employs the provincial terms applied to the substances described, his work may prove a very valuable guide to mineralogists who have an opportunity of surveying the tracts to which he refers. Moreover, as several of the localities specified occur in the neighbourhood of Bath and Bristol, they are readily accessible to contemplation, and may furnish agreeable occupation to the geological visitants of those much frequented places. Numerous *faults* in collieries are also here pointed out, and attributed to the dislocation and disruption of strata; as are the fissures and caverns in mountain lime-stone, detached bowlders of granular quartz, fragments of granite, &c. Mr. Townsend is particularly sollicitous to prove that such blocks have not been detached by common land-floods, or torrents: but may they not have resulted from the decomposition of the softer matters in which they were originally involved? That precipitous mountains and abrupt cliffs are the effect of some violent disruption of their former continuity may, or may not, be consistent with fact: but we can also conceive that their present appearance may be that of their original formation, whether they proceeded from volcanic fire, or from other causes which our limited faculties are inadequate to explain. Even the circumstance of *encrini*, and the relics of corals which now affect the tropical latitudes, being found in the lime-stone of northern Europe, is no unequivocal proof of extensive and stupendous catastrophes; since the phænomena in question may, with at least equal plausibility, be ascribed to changes in the constitutional temperature of our planet.

That portion of the work, which describes the extraneous fossils of our own and other countries, will be found highly deserving of perusal; especially by those who are strangers to the writings of De Luc, Pallas, Saussure, Parkinson, &c. Among the relics belonging to the inferior oolite, the *Madrepora cinerascens* is thus specified:

> 'The coral bed contains the Madrepora cinerascens, which is found recent in the Indian seas. One of these curious petrifactions was standing upright more than five feet high, and expanding nearly six feet, with a double cup, much fractured, but no fragment is scattered to a distance. It was, A. D. 1802, examined by several gentlemen. The remains are to be seen near Midford, in the lane leading from thence to South Stoke. In its cavities it contains numerous coated mytili, with their cables covered by a crust, on some of which corals have begun to build.'

Mr. Townsend's descriptive catalogue of animal and vegetable remains is, however, far more extensive and minute than the purpose of his argument required. His suggestions concerning lime stone, that is generally reputed primitive, are not unworthy of consideration:

> 'In no part of Great Britain have I seen a *primitive lime-stone*, that is, such a lime-stone as in none of its beds contains extraneous fossils. I have indeed seen many rocks which do not readily exhibit the fossils (which) they contain, unless these have been brought to light by polishing. Alternating with such beds, we find others, in which shells and corals are extremely rare, or which seem to be composed entirely of calcareous paste, as in our lyas, whose fossils are confined principally to its intermediate beds of clay.
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> 'In the most perfect of Italian marbles, we have indeed no extraneous fossils, but it does not therefore follow that such rocks are primitive. They are in the vicinity of granite. They border on basalt, and other volcanic productions. They have not the least resemblance to our mountain lime-stone, or other calcareous rocks, formed evidently by subsidence in water. They are semi-pellucid, and in their fracture have a crystalline appearance.
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> 'These circumstances have long since made me suspect the agency of fire, and now the experiments of Sir James Hall confirm my suspicions. He has had the goodness to shew me some of his marble, produced by fusion under pressure, equal in its appearance to the Italian. The term primitive lime-stone seems therefore to be improper, and the reason why no extraneous fossils are to be found in the Carrara marble may be, that the whole mass of this carbonate has been in fusion.'

Mr. T.'s main object, in exhibiting a copious enumeration of organized remains in a petrified state, is to prove that our present continents were, for ages, covered by the waters of the ocean; a position which few intelligent naturalists will be disposed to controvert: but that the shifting of the channel of the sea, and its diffusion over its present beds, constituted the phænomenon of the deluge recorded by Moses, may not be so readily conceded either by the geologist or the divine. It is true, indeed, that the term *days* has been construed into periods of indefinite duration, so as to allow ample time for the consolidation of the strata: but, if we make thus free with the pointed and precise language of Scripture, where are we to stop, or how shall we draw the line between literal and figurative interpretation? Again, the ark seems to have quietly reposed on *known* ground; while the olive-leaf, plucked by the dove, and the vineyard planted by Noah, would indicate a return to the former physical condition of things. In short, if the flood universally prevailed over our planet, and to the height of fifteen cubits above the highest mountain, we must believe it as a *miracle*, and not vainly attempt to explain it by any reference to the known and established laws of nature.

From the section on *Springs*, we learn that they follow the courses of their containing strata; a doctrine of much practical import to landholders and engineers, but which seems to have no immediate connection with the Mosaic account of the Deluge. — Vallies are represented as the effect of subsidence, and not erosion; consequently, as originating in the *débacle* of the Deluge, and not in the slow but incessant waste produced by the attrition of rivers. Yet the converse of the proposition is, perhaps, equally tenable.

Under the article *Consolidation of Strata*, the attention is principally directed to the process of petrifaction, which Mr. Townsend is particularly sollicitous to ascribe to aqueous deposition, and not to igneous fusion. Now, we are not certain that either hypothesis will satisfactorily explain all the phænomena; and, perhaps, the idea of *chemical conversion*, suggested by Patrin, is less chimerical than we might, at first sight, suppose. At any rate, we must believe that, in many instances, the process of *silification*, whatever it may be, takes place with great rapidity. Some specimens of wood-stone, for example, exhibit not only the most entire organization, with the shades of each fibre, but worms, which are themselves converted into agate, with their external surface whitish and opaque, and their interior characterized by waving zones, of different tints, pourtraying the intestines. The annual circles of the wood, and the medullary prolongations from the centre to the

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ation of aquatose fluid that would have consolidated the
Saussure informs us that the cabinet of M. Annone, at
includes a fossil crab, of which even the ova, under the
are petrified. Some petrified fruits might likewise be
d, on the present occasion; particularly the fossil walnuts
ns-le-Saunier, which were found at the depth of 180 feet,
old salt-brine pit. The shell and rhind retained the lig-
texture, while the kernel was converted into silex. In
a's catalogue, mention is made of similar specimens, found
edmont: of which the colour and appearance are so little
ged, that a person would be tempted to eat them, though
nner part of the shell presents not the smallest vestige of
ration. The case of Trajan's bridge over the Danube,
h Mr. Townsend cites with perfect complacency, needs
o be regarded as an exception to this view of the subject;
e can easily conceive siliceous incrustation or deposition
g place very slowly, and being, in fact, a very different
ss from the transmutation of large trunks of trees into
matter, by the union of aëriform fluid with the elements
organized body. Or, if the petrifying progress must be
ured by that of the incrustation just mentioned, its extreme
ness would denote a higher degree of antiquity than the
or had probably contemplated, or than would suit the exi-
ies of his theory.

e operating causes of the *dislocation* of strata are here attri-
d to the joint agency of fire and subterranean currents of
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nsive influence than many have imagined will be readily
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rse to some cause of more uniform and simultaneous ope-
n, in order to account for the inclination of strata which
de whole countries. The effects produced by subterrane-
currents of water are thus explained:

A different species of dislocation, wholly unconnected with the
ding, has been noticed on the northern extremity of Lansdown
t Derry Hill. Such dislocations are extremely common. To
rstand their nature, we must call to mind, what has been said of
, and of springs, and must consider, what is passing at the pre-
moment in the bosom of the ocean.

‘ We have seen, that the copiousness of springs depends on the extent and thickness of the filtrating strata, and that these strata are inclined to the horizon. We have likewise seen, that in cases of rupture and dislocation in the strata, springs may break out either laterally, as at Calstone and Pottern, or perpendicularly upwards, as in every country in which quicksands appear. But should the stratum of water, produced by rains and dew on a considerable expanse of country, and filtrating through its proper bed, as, for instance, through the sand immediately under chalk, or through the great free-stone rock between Bath and Bradford, find either no vent, or one not sufficient to exhaust its contents in the formation of springs and rivers; it must continue to descend over its inclined plain of clay, in its progress towards the centre of the earth, till the top covering, unable to support its pressure, shall give way, and a disruption shall take place. This must naturally happen where, in the bed of the ocean, the incumbent mass of rock is least considerable.

‘ The consequence of this disruption and discharge of water, will be a current in the direction of the filtrating stratum, dependent on the quantity of rain and subject to alternations whenever the supply proceeds from a country, which has its seasons of drought and rain. As the direction of the dip varies in different parts of the globe, so must the direction of the currents, meaning always, not the superficial, affecting navigation, but the ground currents perceptible only by the plumb line.

‘ Now, although we cannot look into the deep, we may be certain, what must be the effects produced by submarine torrents rushing from their beds and pouring forth their copious streams into the ocean. They are two-fold, for first the momentum acquired in a long and rapid descent is not readily destroyed. This we observe in the waters of the Rhone, which for many leagues pursue their course in the Mediterranean Sea, perfectly fresh, without the most minute admixture of salt water. But if such be the momentum in the waters of the Rhone, how much greater must be that of torrents rolling down much steeper descents; and what a battering ram must they present to opposing strata of argil, sand, or other soft materials. Such materials must be washed away, and consequently the superincumbent strata, even of the hardest rocks, must fall.

‘ But in the second place, such a plentiful supply of water, once in motion, must inevitably dislocate much of the filtrating stratum, in which it was collected, with the clay on which it glides, and thereby let down the superincumbent strata.

‘ This process is taking place in the present ocean, and may have existed in the former. But, however the effect in question may have been produced, certain it is, that superior strata were undermined, and that considerable incroachments were made on the inferior strata by which numerous superincumbent beds sunk down. Such incroachments cannot have been produced by the common agents of destruction, rain, dews, frost, and wind. They must, therefore, have originated in the attrition of inferior currents, however caused, whilst these strata and the now habitable parts of the globe were covered by the sea.

'The scattered fragments of the dislocated strata being perpetually in motion, and agitated by contending currents, may have formed shingle, precisely like the alternations of the tides, on our sea shores, and the same operation may have produced bowlder-stones, which cannot have been formed by land floods and torrents.

'On these scattered fragments, some angular, others, by agitation and attrition, rounded, various substances, such as clay, sand, broken shells, or the paste of these, having been deposited, may have given birth to breccia and pudding-stone.'

The observations on Dr. Hutton's Theory of the Earth, which follow next in course, are prefaced by the ascription of *motives* to the author of that theory, who can no longer answer for himself. Mr. T. says, 'He was not an Atheist; but, as far as we can judge by his writings, a firm believer in the wisdom and power of the Creator. His object, therefore, in this work, was not to establish atheism, but to justify his unbelief in Revelation, and to make converts to his infidel opinions.' If sincere and enlightened divines have openly maintained that the Bible was not destined to instruct us in the principles of physical science, and that the interests of Revelation cannot be affected by the highest antiquity which can be assigned to the existence of the globe, we may charitably presume that Dr. Hutton's investigations were prompted by the purest zeal for truth, and that the idea of disturbing the faith of the narrow-minded interpreters of Scripture was beneath his notice.—In Mr. Townsend's review of this celebrated theory, several forcible objections to some of its leading principles are stated; and we much mistake if difficulties of equivalent weight will not be found to press on every theory of the earth that has been hitherto proposed. At all events, the discussion of the two rival systems of fire and water has been too frequently agitated, to afford either instruction or amusement to our philosophical readers.

In the section on *Chronometers*, the existence of Delta soils at the mouths of rivers, — accretions at the entrance of rivers into great lakes, — the gradual conversion of lesser lakes into marshes, and then into meadows, — the recent formations of peat-earth, — the choaking of bays, creeks, and æstuaries, — the retrocession of the Baltic, &c., are adduced as so many physical proofs that the origin of our continents is not more antient than the period of the Deluge: but the advocates for the indefinite antiquity of the world may allege that these measurable diminutions of the quantity of fluid are, comparatively, of yesterday, and that former waters may have repeatedly accumulated and receded in the lapse of ages.

Under the title of *Geological Conjectures*, the author first considers the changes which may have taken place in the interval between the general Deluge and our earliest records, and which may have been such 'as to render it difficult for us to give a satisfactory answer to all the questions which have been proposed by infidels, respecting the very brief and compendious relation of our sacred records, when describing the universal deluge.' Such, for example, may have been the formation of many great alluvial flats, and the subsidence of large portions of land. Secondly, the shifting of the poles of the earth is shortly stated as not inconsistent with probability, though not essential to the explanation of the Deluge. —The third conjecture is thus summarily dispatched:

> 'In ascending up from granite, the first calcareous rock I have noticed is mountain lime-stone. This seems to be principally composed of the encrinus and a rich assemblage of corals. The species of bivalves are comparatively few. The superior calcareous strata exhibit progressively a greater variety of animal productions.
>
> 'This progress seems to indicate successive periods, and periods of uncertain length, which in Scripture language, as it is conjectured, may have been denominated days. Certain it is, that we have no other measure for time but the motion of bodies through a given space. Our moving body is the earth itself in its annual orbit and in its diurnal revolution, the latter of which is marked by the succession of night and day, that is, of darkness and of light. But as these are dependant on the sun, strictly speaking there could be neither of them before its existence; yet, in perfect conformity to prophetic language, the term *day* may be referred to *period* in general, without meaning to restrict the word to its present acceptation.'

By this latitude of interpretation, notwithstanding its vagueness, we may contrive to get rid of a formidable difficulty in the first chapter of Genesis: but, if we do not apply it with great moderation to the history of the flood, Noah and his attendants must have been *well stricken in years* before they came out of the ark.

The fourth conjecture has a reference to the formation of chalk and flint. It is alleged that the former may have proceeded from submarine volcanozation; and the latter, sometimes from filtration, and sometimes from igneous fusion.—Vthly, says Mr. Townsend, 'granulated marble, by its crystalline appearance, and by its vicinity to volcanic regions, leads me to acquiesce in the opinion of Sir James Hall, that it has passed through fire.'

A section of some length is devoted to the *great Importance of Geology*. First, it directs the landed proprietor to a judicious and appropriate management of particular descriptions of soil; secondly,

ly, it guides and facilitates the operations of the civil en-
in conducting canals, and furnishing them with a per-
t supply of water; thirdly, it points out to builders the
ls most suitable to their designs, and the spots in which
nay be found; fourthly, it is of eminent service to the
ssioners of turnpike-roads, and the surveyors of high-
fifthly, it is of direct benefit to the brick-maker; sixthly,
statuary and marble mason; seventhly, to the collectors
r's earth; eighthly, to coal-adventurers; and, ninthly, to
l adventurers.—Far be it from us to impugn such obvious
lutary truisms: but really we cannot refrain from re-
g that they have nearly the same affinity to the 'Charac-
Moses,' as the demonstration of the *ass's bridge*, or the
nill of Pythagoras.

eating of the tenth head, however, Mr. Townsend re-
o the proper business of his treatise, and labours to incul-
e existence of an essential connection between the science
logy and our *immortal hopes*. We most sincerely trust
e latter rest on a more firm foundation than the very im-
state of our knowlege relative to the structure and revo-
of our globe; that Neptunist and Plutonist may alike
rit the kingdom of heaven;" and that, if the earth was
holly submerged in water, we may be piously allowed
ibe such an awful visitation to the direct and miraculous
sition of the Deity, rather than anxiously seek to trace it
operation of regular physical causes, or attempt to re-
it with the obscure and scanty elements of human
e.

futility of the argument for the antiquity of the world,
d from the strata of vegetable soil interposed between
as of volcanic districts, is justly exposed by the present
but he seems, on the other hand, to rely with too much
nce on the alleged fact that we can discern no traces of
ble soil, except on the surface of the earth. The ac-
of the fact itself may certainly be questioned, since, even
eject the hypothesis of the vegetable origin of coal, it
t be denied that strata of peat-earth and surturbrand have
bserved at considerable depths; and that the remains of
nd various plants indicate levels of vegetation consider-
wer than the present. Granting, however, that no such
symptoms existed, it would still be within the range of
ility, nay, of *probability*, that they had been obliterated by
uent changes and revolutions.

T. apparently concludes his work by announcing the
al appearance of another, 'On the Languages, Customs,
anners of the human Race, as described in the Pentateuch,
and

and in the most venerable Records of the Pagan World;'—when, lo! another section, on 'Extraneous Fossils,' takes the reader by surprize. Its object, however, is chiefly technical; namely, to enable the purchasers of his book, 'by means of extraneous fossils, to distinguish the several strata of our island;' and, in this point of view, the plates and descriptions may doubtless prove of very considerable service. The whole performance, indeed, bespeaks much industry and observation, and contains a great variety of important statements, relative especially to the geology of our own country: but, considered as a train of theological argumentation, it appears to us to be liable to objection. Some of the principal difficulties, for example, which have been proposed with regard to the inspiration of the books of the Old Testament, the record of the death of Moses, the faculty of articulate language ascribed to the Serpent, the apparent attribution of human speech and human passions to the Deity, the circumstance of Cain building a *city*, &c. &c., are wholly omitted; while the materials of several of the selected topics are spread into such indefinite diffusion, that the inferences which they were intended to support nearly vanish from contemplation, and the *Character of Moses* at length recurs to our recollection rather as the appended title than as the subject of the volume. Of the propriety of any attempt to amalgamate the doctrines of Revelation with the discoveries of modern science, we entertain very serious doubts: but, if the truth of the former be supposed to derive confirmation from an appeal to the latter, we could wish to see that appeal conducted in a more luminous and connected manner than the present author has adopted.

ART. II. *Travels through Canada, and the United States of North America*, in the Years 1806, 1807, and 1808. To which are added, Biographical Notices and Anecdotes of some of the leading Characters in the United States. By John Lambert. With a Map and numerous Engravings. 2d Edition. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1076. 1l. 10s. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1813.

IT appears that Mr. Lambert had long been desirous of visiting America, and of exploring the scenes which are rendered interesting in history by the names of a Wolfe and a Washington, before he was enabled to accomplish his wish. In the year 1806, however, his purpose was put in execution, and Canada was the first district that fell under his observation. He has appropriated a volume respectively to that province and to the United States, describing the former with great minuteness, and marking his more rapid survey of the latter with a

ition to candour and impartiality. Without any predi-
for the Americans nationally or individually, he is
s to awaken his countrymen to a due sense of the grow-
portance of a state which possesses so vast and fertile a
ry, and the population of which increases with a rapidity
wn in the long settled countries of Europe. In adverting
distinctive character of the Canadians and the inhabitants
United States, he points out that the distance from British
is much greater in the former: because, although for
sixty years they have been subject to our sway, they re-
vith very little diminution the language and habits of
hmen; while in the United States, notwithstanding a
tion during a period somewhat longer than philosophical
ators allow to a generation of our species, and in spite of
miscellaneous intercourse with the rest of the world, a
d predominance of British manners and customs still

arriving at Quebec, Mr. L. was highly delighted with
auty and magnificence of its landscape. The view of that
nd of the surrounding country, presents to the approach-
yager an assemblage of almost every thing that is grand
cturesque. In front, is seen an immense projecting rock,
d with buildings rising gradually one above another, in
rm of an amphitheatre; on the left, is Point Levi; on
ht, the island of Orleans; and, farther on, the majestic
of Montmorency, with its snow-white-falls, is seen in
ning on the lofty shores of Beauport. The beauty of
, however, is but indifferently seconded by the labour of
nd, on entering the town, the spectator experiences a
ointment somewhat similar to that of a traveller who is
wn in the *lanes* of Constantinople, after he has approached
ty by the canal of the Bosphorus. The streets of Quebec
general, so narrow and rugged, as scarcely to deserve the
; and this account applies unluckily to both the Upper
e Lower town, though the former is the less exceptionable
two. The Lower town is built by the water-side along
se of the mountain; the Upper stands on the summit of
endous rock, and is approached by a street which winds
rpentine direction up the ascent, but is so steep as to
e no small exertion to traverse it, particularly as only a
f it is paved. A more direct communication takes place
ng flight of steps, which, however, in winter, are very
ous, and have consequently obtained the significant name
akneck-stairs:

e markets of Quebec are well supplied with every thing the
afFords. In summer the following articles are brought to
market

market by the Habitans, and generally sold at the prices affixed to them.

'Sterling money.

Meat.	Beef per lb. 1½*d.* to 4*d.* Mutton per lb. 4*d.* to 6*d.*; per sheep 8*s.* to 10*s.* Lamb per quarter 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* Veal 6*d.* to 7*d.* per lb. Pork 5*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.
Poultry and Game.	Turkeys per couple 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* Fowls do. 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* Chickens do. 7*d.* to 10*d.* Geese do. 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* Partridges do. 10*d.* to 15*d.* Pigeons per doz. 1*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* Hares each 6*d.* to 9*d.*'—

'As soon as the river between Quebec and the island of Orleans is frozen over, a large supply of provisions is received from that island. The Canadians at the commencement of winter kill the greatest part of their stock, which they carry to market in a frozen state. The inhabitants of the towns then supply themselves with a sufficient quantity of poultry and vegetables till spring, and keep them in garrets or cellars. As long as they remain frozen, they preserve their goodness, but they will not keep long after they have thawed. I have eaten turkeys in April which have been kept in this manner all the winter, and found them remarkably good. Before the frozen provisions are dressed, they are always laid for some hours in *cold* water, which extracts the ice; otherwise, by a sudden immersion in hot water, they would be spoiled.

'The articles of life are certainly very reasonable in Canada; but the high price of house-rent and European goods, together with the high wages of servants, more than counterbalances that advantage.'

The export of corn forms a regular branch of business in Canada, but varies in course according to the currency of the British market:

'The following statement will exhibit the fluctuating demand for wheat, biscuit, and flour, from 1796 to 1808:

	1796	1799	1802	1807	1808
Wheat—Bushels	3,106	128,870	1,010,033	234,543	186,708
Flour—Barrels	4,352	14,475	28,301	20,424	42,462
Biscuit—Cwt.	3,882	20,535	22,051	28,047	32,587

The most flourishing of all periods of the Canada trade was the interval of three or four years between the stoppage of the navigation of the United States by the Embargo Act, and their declaration of war against us in June 1812. This, however, being necessarily temporary, the attention of the inquirer d be fixed, in preference, on the fur-trade, which seems to e great or permanent occupation of mercantile capital in ıart of America. It fell into the hands of English mers immediately after the conquest and cession of the pro-, and was for several years prosecuted by individuals on separate account: but, about thirty years ago, an association ormed, which, under the name of the North-west Com- has pursued this difficult traffic to a much greater t than it could have been carried by unconnected ıants. The Company having no exclusive privilege, a d association took place, and was conducted separately for siderable time: but, in late years, their capitals have been l, and the number of persons interested in the con- is said to exceed forty; while their clerks, travellers, and ı servants, amount to upwards of three thousand. The l employed is unavoidably large, on account of the slow- of the returns:

'he trade is now pushed to the very extremity of the continent; he coast of Labrador to the Pacific Ocean, extending to the vard beyond the arctic circle. The goods sent up annually from eal, for the barter of furs from the Indians, are upwards of *ears before they produce a return*. The dangers and difficulties ing the transportation of these aticles so many thousand miles rivers, lakes, and portages, have been so well described by Sir nder M'Kenzie, in his history of the fur trade, that it is un- ary for me to detail them here: it is sufficient to say that they s any thing that can be formed in idea, by persons who never ed the vast expanse of waters, the gloomy and interminable fo- which cover the extensive dominions of British North America. here is another association established within these few years, the The South-west or Michillimakinak Company: some of rtners in this association have also shares in the North-west Com- but the general concern is totally separate. The South-west ants pursue their trade across the lakes Ontario and Erie, and the rivers Illinois, Ohio, and Mississippi, in the territory of the l States.'—

shall perhaps be hardly credited, when I say that manufactured an be obtained considerably *cheaper* in England than in Canada; uffs, tippets, caps, and hats, are all much inferior, in their ap- ce, to those articles in London, and above a third higher in price. anadian furriers do not yet possess the art of turning their furs most advantage; their muffs and caps are heavy and cumber- and I hazard little in saying that a London furrier would make nuffs out of the quantity which a Canadian puts into one.'

r settlements in the East and West Indies subject those r countrymen who emigrate to so complete a change of e, that it becomes very doubtful whether any acquisition perty can compensate, in a general view, for the loss sustained by the national population. From this serious objection, our North American colonies are in a great measure exempt; the climate of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, being seldom fatal to persons who have sound lungs. The chief disadvantage of the North American climate consists in the extreme degree to which heat and cold predominate in their respective seasons. While in our own country a rise in the thermometer to 80° is deemed unusual and oppressive, in Canada it is commonly found, in the heat of summer, at 90°, 100°, and even 103°. In winter, the fall below the medium cold of England is still more remarkable; the mean of the winter-months being about 0, while a fall to 20° or 30° below 0 is far from unprecedented in the depth of the season:

'The greatest degree of cold experienced during the winter I remained at Quebec, was on the 15th February, when the thermometer fell 30 degrees below 0. The preceding month it had been several times as low as 15 and 18, and at one time 26 degrees below 0. The greatest degree of cold which I have heard of in Canada was 36 below 0. On the coldest days I have walked through the town, and with the wind at my back suffered very little inconvenience; but when I turned about, I found, as the keen air blew on my face, that my cheeks became numbed and insensible, and would most likely have been frost-bitten, had I not rubbed them briskly with my hands, and restored the circulation of the blood. It is not uncommon on those severe days for people to have their cheeks, nose, or ears, frost-bitten; and often before they are aware of it. It is then dangerous to approach the fire hastily. The frost-bitten parts must be rubbed with snow until the blood circulates, otherwise mortification would in all probability ensue.

'The winter from Christmas to Lady-day is almost always remarkable for a fine, clear, azure sky seldom obscured by fogs or clouds; and the dry frosty weather is rarely interrupted by falls of snow, sleet, or rain. These advantages render a Canadian winter so agreeable and pleasant, that the inhabitants are never under the necessity of changing their dress, from any sudden alteration of the weather, unless it is to discard their great coats and fur caps, which is rendered necessary sometimes by the powerful warmth of the sun, whose beams are scarcely ever intercepted by a single cloud. The aurora borealis is common in Canada, and frequently illuminates the winter evening with its playful light.'—

'The Canadians feel the cold more than Europeans on their first arrival. The constant use of stoves renders them very little better than hot-house plants during winter, and in summer they are exposed to a burning sun. These things do not affect the European constitution for the first two or three years, but afterwards it becomes as sensible to the heat and cold as that of the Canadians. It may astonish those who have heard such dreadful accounts of a Canadian winter, when I assert it as a fact, that the people of Great Britain suffer more from the cold than the people of Canada; or at least they are more exposed to it; for they seldom make any material alteration in their dress, either summer or winter.'—

'The months of March and April are in general very hot, and the sun then begins to have great power, which is considerably heightened by the reflection of the snow and ice. The inhabitants are more tanned by the reflection of the snow in these months than they are at any other season of the year by the sun. It is likewise so very hurtful to the eyes, that they are obliged to wear shades of green gauze fastened to their hats.

'The snow begins to melt early in April, and by the second or third week it is generally all gone. During this period it is dreadful walking in town, and as bad travelling in the country. The streets of Quebec are inundated with snow-water, and the kennels have the appearance and sound of so many little rapids. The ice in the river is seldom totally gone before the first week in May. The breaking up of the ice in the vicinity of Quebec is not attended with any remarkable noise or appearance; but at Montreal, and the upper parts of the river, where it is frozen quite across, I am told it has a grand appearance, and breaks up with loud reports. The lake ice comes down in prodigious quantities for several days, bringing with it the roots and branches of trees which it tears from the islands and shores in its progress. Until these have passed, none of the river-vessels can leave Quebec for Montreal.'

Travelling in Canada, as it may be expected in a country so imperfectly cultivated, is attended with many inconveniences. The Post-Calashes are very ill adapted for a long journey; affording no shelter from the rain, the sun, or the heavy dews of the night. Water-conveyance by the St. Lawrence is eligible only in coming down the river; and the Canadians have not yet imitated their American neighbours in resorting to the use of the steam-boat. The chief compensation for the tedium of a river-passage is in the beauty of the surrounding landscape:

'The river St. Lawrence, all the way up on both sides, affords a variety of the most beautiful prospects. As far as the rapids of Richlieu, the shores are steep, rugged, and lofty; in some places projecting into the river in the form of small capes and promontories; and in others, receding into innumerable coves and bays, which in many parts expand the river to a considerable breadth. The banks are covered with trees and shrubs of various kinds, except in a few places where the black lime-slate, or lime-stone rock, shivers in thin pieces or moulders into dust. On the summit of the shores, the white farm-houses, and neat churches, placed at almost regular distances, appear at intervals between clumps of trees and rich meadows. In other parts the shores are seen sloping into cultivated valleys covered with a beautiful rich verdure, and adorned with small neat villages, in which the church, the houses of the curé and the seignior, are generally the most conspicuous. Thick umbrageous forests, and distant mountains whose summits mingle with the clouds, complete the charming scenery, which is viewed to great advantage during a voyage up the river, and which presents to the eye a succession of the most beautiful landscapes.'

This delightful scenery continues to improve as the voyager approaches Montreal. The extent of population and of culture evidently increases in that direction, while the notice of the stranger is attracted by houses and villages scattered every where along the banks, and intermingled with clusters of plantations. Montreal itself, though on the whole the most comfortable residence in Canada, is in point of appearance heavy and gloomy, the houses being deficient in height, and consisting of ponderous masses of stone put together with very little taste. They are seldom more than two stories above the ground-floor, including garrets; and the streets, though regularly laid out, are deficient in width: but they are well paved, and the improvements now going on will render the town commodious, if not cheerful. The doors and window-shutters are covered with large sheets of tin, painted of a red or lead colour, which unluckily corresponds too closely with the darkness of the stone used in building. To be gratified with objects of beauty, it is necessary to quit the streets, and fix the eye on the environs:

'All the principal North-west merchants reside at Montreal, which is the emporium of their trade, and the grand mart of the commerce carried on between Canada and the United States. They, and other respectable merchants, have country-houses a few miles from the city, which, with their numerous orchards and gardens well stocked with every variety of fruit-trees, shrubs, and flowers, render the surrounding country extremely beautiful and picturesque. The succession of rich and variegated objects that are presented to the eye of the spectator, from the base of the neighbouring mountain, cannot be surpassed in any part of Canada, with the exception, perhaps, of the view from Cape Diamond at Quebec. They are, however, of a very different nature, and may be described like Homer and Virgil; the one grand, bold, and romantic; the other serene, beautiful, and elegant. Quebec has more of the majesty of nature; Montreal more of the softness of art.'—

'The towns of Quebec and Montreal, including their suburbs, are said to contain about 12,000 inhabitants each, nearly three-fourths of whom are French.'—

'The British inhabitants of Quebec consist of the government people; the military; a few persons belonging to the church, the law, and medicine; the merchants, and shopkeepers.

'The French comprise the old noblesse and seigniors, most of whom are members of the government; the clergy, the advocates and notaries; the storekeepers.

'These different classes form *three* distinct divisions of society, which contrive to keep at a respectful distance from each other.'—

'The natives of Canada, both French and English, who inhabit the towns, are generally of a middle stature, rather slender than robust, and very rarely possess the blooming and ruddy complexion of the British; a pale, sallow, or swarthy countenance characterizes the natives of Canada, and, with few exceptions, the whole of the American continent.—The country-girls, who are nearly all French, (with the exception of those who reside in the back townships,) are pretty when very young, but from hard work and exposure to the sun they grow up coarse-featured and swarthy, and have all the sturdiness but none of the beauty of our Welsh girls.'—

'The manners of the Canadians in the most flourishing periods of the French government are represented to have been by no means favourable to literature and the arts, or to the promotion of knowledge among the rising generation. Those who lived in the country are said to have spent the greater part of the winter in idleness, thoughtlessly sitting by the fire; and when the return of spring called them out to the indispensable labours of the field, they ploughed the ground superficially, without manuring it, sowed it carelessly, and then relapsed into their former indolent course of life till the approach of harvest.'—'The education of their children was neglected, and, with but few exceptions, ignorance and illiterateness characterized the whole community; their deficiencies are noticed by General Murray, in his letter soon after the conquest. "They are very ignorant (says the General): it was the policy of the French government to keep them so. Printing was never permitted in Canada till we got possession of it, and few or none can read."

'The British settlers who at this period established themselves in the province were so few, and withal so mean, both in birth and education, that little or no improvement could be expected from them: even the civil officers who were sent out to administer the government, were illiterate and dissipated characters.'—

'As agriculture and commerce have increased, the British settlers have risen into consequence, and men of respectability been sent over to govern the country. The French inhabitants have however degenerated in proportion as the British have acquired importance. The noblesse and and seigniors have almost dwindled into the common mass of the vulgar; their estates and seigniories have been divided among their children, or have fallen into the hands of the opulent British merchants. The few who still possess an estate or seigniory seldom live upon it, but reside wholly in the towns, equally averse from agriculture, commerce, and the arts. They visit their estates merely to pick up their rents.—

'The education given by the British inhabitants to their children is no more than is necessary for mercantile affairs. A few are bred up to the law, and are sometimes sent home to England for education in that important branch of the government.

'The French inhabitants send their boys to the French seminary, where there is just sufficient taught to make a priest, a clerk, an advocate, or a notary. These professions, however, must not be understood as requiring the same quantum of knowledge and learning as they do in England. A much smaller share of either will suffice for Canadian practice. As to the rest of the Canadian people, it is said that not more than five in a parish can read or write.

'Such are the defects in the education of youth in Canada, though there are hopes that information, however slow, is daily gaining ground. Several new schools have within these few years been opened at Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers; and there is a seminary at Montreal dignified by the name of College, where Latin, French, English, and the common rudiments of learning are taught to upwards of two hundred boys.—

'The French send their daughters to the nunneries, where reading, embroidery, and superstition are taught at a trifling expence. The British inhabitants send their children to boarding-schools, which have lately been established in the two principal towns.—

'The education of females in Canada is slight and superficial; more attention is paid to external ornament than to internal improvement; and the mistaken indulgence of their parents tends very much to increase the general levity and frivolity which prevail among the Canadian ladies.'

We have now noticed the most interesting topics of Mr. Lambert's first volume; and we put it out of our hands with no other censure than that the details are sometimes too minute and trivial, and that repetitions and diffuse statements are introduced to an extent which is scarcely pardonable in a first, and by no means in a second, edition. These trespasses occur less frequently in the second volume; where the author, having before him a wider range and a more busy scene, has fixed his attention on objects of greater consequence. Though ostensibly it treats of the United States in general, it is appropriated chiefly to the provinces of New England and Carolina. Of the vast tract of country lying between these States, he saw little, having proceeded by sea from New York to Charlestown, and having returned (after a considerable stay at the latter place) by a similar mode of conveyance. Arriving at New York before the embargo had produced a stagnation of trade, he was singularly delighted with the bustle among the population, and with the elegant appearance of that city. It has neither the narrow and confined irregularity of Boston nor the monotonous sameness of Philadelphia, but exhibits a happy medium between them. Two of its streets, the Broad Way and the Bowery Road, resemble our Oxford Street in width and beauty; the houses being lofty, constructed in the English style, and differing from those of London at the west end of the town only in being built of red brick. The harbour of New York, in consequence of the saltness and the strength of its currents, has the advantage of remaining open in the midst of winter; while the waters of Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Alexandria, are locked up by ice. The markets of New York and the prices for butcher's meat seem nearly on a par with those of the cheapest districts of England. Bread is much lower, while groceries and liquors appear to be scarcely above half our price: but labour of all kinds is so high as to turn the scale, in the general expence of housekeeping, against our Trans-atlantic brethren.

The traveller is much struck with the great proportion of deaths in the United States which have their origin in debility and nervous complaints; the prevalence of which is generally attributed to the effect of moisture and sudden changes of weather, but much may likewise be placed to the account of a gross mode of living:

> 'The higher and middling classes of the Americans, who reside chiefly in the great towns or their neighbourhood, live, generally speaking, in a more luxurious manner than the same description of people in England. Not that their tables are more sumptuously furnished on particular occasions than ours; but that their ordinary meals consist of a greater variety of articles, many of which from too frequent use may, perhaps, become pernicious to the constitution. The constant use of segars by the young men, even from an early age, may also tend to impair the constitution, and create a stimulus beyond that which nature requires, or is capable of supporting. Their dread of the yellow fever has induced a more frequent use of tobacco of late years; but it is now grown into a habit that will not be easily abandoned. The other classes of the community, who reside in the interior and back parts of the country, are often obliged to live upon salt provisions the greatest part of the year, and sometimes on very scanty fare; besides which, they generally dwell in miserable log huts, incapable of defending them effectually from the severity of the weather. Those who have the means of living better are great eaters of animal food, which is introduced at every meal; together with a variety of hot cakes, and a profusion of butter: all which may more or less tend to the introduction of bilious disorders, and perhaps lay the foundation of those diseases which prove fatal in hot climates. The effects of a luxurious or meagre diet are equally injurious to the constitution, and, together with the sudden and violent changes of the climate, may create a series of nervous complaints, consumption, and debility, which in the states bordering on the Atlantic carry off at least one third of the inhabitants in the prime of life.
>
> 'The malignant or yellow fever generally commences in the confined parts of the town, near the water-side, in the month of August or September. It is commonly supposed to have been introduced by the French refugees from St. Domingo during the French Revolution; though some are of opinion that it originated in the States; and many physicians were puzzling their brains about its origin at a time when they ought to have been devising means to stop its ravages. As soon as this dreadful scourge makes its appearance in New York, the inhabitants shut up their shops, and fly from their houses into the country. Those who cannot go far, on account of business, remove to Greenwich, a small village situate on the border of the Hudson river, about two or three miles from town. Here the merchants and others have their offices, and carry on their concerns with little danger

from the fever, which does not seem to be contagious beyond a certain distance. The banks and other public offices also remove their business to this place; and markets are regularly established for the supply of the inhabitants. Very few are left in the confined parts of the town except the poorer classes, and the negroes. The latter not being affected by the fever, are of great service at that dreadful crisis; and are the only persons who can be found to discharge the hazardous duties of attending the sick and burying the dead. Upwards of 26,000 people removed from the interior parts of the city, and from the streets near the water-side, in 1805. Since then the town has happily been free from that dreadful scourge; and from the salutary regulations which have since been adopted, it is to be hoped that it will never make its appearance again.'—

‘ The population of New York has, in a period of twenty years from 1786 to 1805, more than tripled itself; and should the population continue to increase at the rate of five per cent. per annum, it will in 1855 amount to 705,650, a population greater than that of Paris. At this day it is equal to the whole number of inhabitants in the *State* of New York fifty years ago.

‘ If any estimate can be formed of the salubrity of the climate, and the healthiness of the inhabitants of a town, by the number of deaths, London must be reckoned to have the advantage of New York in these respects. The amount of deaths in the former city is about a *fiftieth* part of its population, while in New York it is at least one *thirtieth*; the number of deaths ranging between 2,500 and 3,000 per annum.'

Education is still at a low ebb in the United States, though the number of schools and colleges is materially increased in late years. Among others, a grammar-school, on the plan of our great public schools, has been lately established in New York; and it has become fashionable for both sexes in that city to supply the want of early instruction by attending public lectures on Chemistry, Botany, Mechanics, &c.

‘ The inhabitants of New York are not remarkable for early rising, and little business seems to be done before nine or ten o'clock. Most of the merchants and people in business dine about two o'clock; others who are less engaged, about three; but four o'clock is usually the fashionable hour for dining. The gentlemen are partial to the bottle, but not to excess; and at private dinner-parties they seldom sit more than two hours drinking wine.'—

‘ New York abounds with religious sects of various denominations; but the Episcopalians and Presbyterians seem to be the most numerous, at least they have more places of worship than any of the others. The Quakers form but a small community in this city, and even that is decreasing; for the young people do not appear much inclined to follow up the strict ceremonials of their parents in point of dress and manners. They do not attach much weight to a broad-brim'd hat, nor to the old-fashioned cut of plain-coloured clothes. These little abberations, however, do not bring upon them the public censure of the Friends, unless they are accompanied by visiting plays, dances, and other public amusements; playing at cards, music, &c., for which they are read out of the society. Notwithstanding this excommunication, many still continue to attend the meetings, and, if they afterwards deport themselves in an orderly manner, may be received into the community again.'—

'All religious sects in the United States are upon an equal footing: no one has any established prerogative above another; but in any place, on particular occasions, where precedence is given to one over another, the episcopal church, or that sect which is most numerous, generally takes the lead.'

On visiting Charlestown, Mr. L. found a city somewhat similar to New York in its locality, but much inferior in size and elegance; the population being under thirty thousand, and the streets in general narrow and confined. The situation, though highly convenient for trade, is unwholesome; and its natural disadvantages are aggravated by the indolence of the inhabitants, who allow filthy bogs and stagnant pools of water to continue in the town and neighbourhood. The expence of living seems somewhat higher than at New York:

'Charleston contains a handsome and commodious market-place extending from Meeting-street to the water-side, which is as well supplied with provisions as the country will permit. Compared, however, with the markets of the northern towns, the supply is very inferior both in quality and quantity. The beef, mutton, veal, and pork, of South Carolina are seldom met with in perfection; and the hot weather renders it impossible to keep the meat many hours after it is killed. Large supplies of corned beef and pork are brought from the northern states. Though the rivers abound with a great variety of fish, yet very few are brought to market.—

'The expence of living at Charleston may be estimated from the following table of commodities, the prices of which are in sterling money. Bread about 3*d*. per lb., butter 7*d*., cheese 6*d*., beef 5*d*., mutton 6d., veal 8*d*., oysters 8*d*. per quart., Hyson tea 6*s*. per lb., coffee 1*s*. 6*d*., Havannah sugar 6*d*., Louisiana sugar 6½*d*., loaf sugar 1*s*., brandy 7*s*. per gallon, Jamaica rum 7*s*., New England rum 3*s*. 6*d*., Hollands 7*s*., Malaga wine 5*s*. 10*d*., Claret 12*s*. per dozen, spermaceti oil 5*s*. 3*d*. per gallon, lamp oil 3*s*., Florence oil 3*s*. per pint. Bottled porter, from London, 2*s*. 3*d*. per bottle. House rent from 30*l*. to 700*l*. per annum.'—

'The present population of Charleston is reckoned about 28,000: of this number, not more than 7,000 are whites, the rest are negroes and people of colour, the majority of whom are slaves. The following statement will exhibit the progressive increase of population in the State of South Carolina since its settlement in 1670:

Years.	White People.	Blacks & Mulattos.	Total.
1670	A small colony sent over under Governor Sayle.		
1700	5,500	——	5,500
1721	14,000	——	14,000
1723	14,000	18,000	32,000
1734	7,333	22,000	29,333
1765	40,000	90,000	130,000
1792	140,178	108,895	249,073
1800	196,255	149,336	345,591
1808	250,000	200,000	450,000

'Charleston has been described as the seat of hospitality, elegance, and gaiety. Whatever it may boast of the former, it is certain there was very little of the latter on my arrival in that city, though it was the season for amusements. But the fatal fever which had prevailed the preceding autumn, and carried off great numbers of the people, added to the general stagnation of trade occasioned by the embargo, seemed to have paralysed the energies and damped the spirits of the inhabitants, and prevented them from partaking of those entertainments and diversions to which they were accustomed at that season of the year.

'Genteel society in Charleston is confined to the planters, principal merchants, public officers, divines, lawyers, and physicians.

'The planters are generally considered as the wealthiest people in the state. This may be true with respect to their landed property and slaves: but they are not the most moneyed people; for, except upon their annual crops of rice and cotton, which produce various incomes from 6,000 to 50,000 dollars, they seldom can command a dollar in cash, and are besides continually in debt. The long credit, which merchants and traders throughout Charleston are obliged to give the planters and other people of property in the state, is the subject of universal complaint among the former; and whatever credit the Carolinians may deserve for their "unaffected hospitality, affability, ease of manners, and address," so flatteringly mentioned in every edition of Morse's Geography, yet the payment of their debts can never be reckoned among their virtues.'

Those persons who are acquainted with the habits of our West-India-planters must acknowlege a mortifying resemblance between them and the same class in the southern States of America. In both countries, ignorance prevails respecting the true method of calculating property and income; the consequence of which is a ridiculous over-rating of future prospects, and a neglect of that economy and patient attention which constitute the essence of mercantile and agricultural prosperity. These coincidences will be ascribed by some to the operation of climate, but by others, with more foundation,

to

o the habit of getting work performed by slaves, and to the ackward state of social comfort in either country. Another npleasant point of resemblance is found in the prevalence of uelling:

> ' Private quarrels frequently disgrace the public prints: challenges re sent; and if refused, the parties are posted as "*prevaricating oltroons and cowards.*" A few months before I arrived, a duel took place between two young gentlemen of respectable families, which terminated in the death of both. There is, perhaps, no country in the world where duels are so frequent as in the United States. During my short stay of six months in that country, there were upwards of *fourteen* fought which came to my knowledge; and *not one* of them in which the parties were not either *killed* or *wounded*. Since my departure, I heard of a duel having been fought with *rifles* at only *seven* paces distance, in which two young men, whose families were of the highest respectability, were *both killed* on the spot.'

Mr. Lambert had ample opportunity of observing how little the existence of such a spirit is connected with the true military character. A levy of militia having been ordered by Congress, he saw the Charlestown quota reviewed, and received an impression similar to that which the campaigns in Canada have produced among us at home. It was at that time not unusual for militia-men to attend at muster with walking sticks, instead of firelocks; and an amusing anonymous satire on these sham reviews is inserted at p. 192.— In taking a general view of the province of South Carolina, he divides it (p. 205.) into three parts, the lower, middle, and upper country; each of which exhibits considerable diversity in soil and management. The lower country lying along the sea-shore has, in general, a level surface, and is distinguished by creeks, marshes, and islands. Cotton and rice are here the great objects of cultivation, corn and potatoes being grown in very limited quantities. In the middle country, cotton and corn, particularly Indian-corn, are raised both for consumption and exportation; while in the upper country tobacco, and of late years cotton, are the chief objects of attention. There being few or no slaves in this quarter, the labour of cultivation devolves on the farmer and his family, who thus approach nearly to the situation of the inhabitants of the New England States. The want of slaves has taught the importance of saving the waste of labour, and of substituting the plough for the hoe; and though the latter continues the chief instrument of husbandry in the lower country, we cannot doubt that the use of the plough would be beneficial throughout the whole province. Of the three divisions, the upper country is by far the most healthy; the city of Charlestown and the tract adjoining the sea being subject to very dangerous mildews;

'The climate of South Carolina is peculiarly liable to sudden changes of temperature; so that in one moment the body is relaxed by heat, and the next chilled by unexpected cold. Thus, profuse perspirations are checked; and unless the functions of the body are restored to their proper duties, a course of disorders commences, which sooner or later destroys the constitution. In tropical climates, it is said, the degrees of heat throughout the year do not vary more than sixteen degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, making thereby little difference between summer and winter. But in South Carolina there is often a variation of 83 degrees between the heat and cold of different days in the same year, in the space of seven months; and of 46 degrees in the different hours of the same day.'

Returning northwards, Mr. Lambert visited Boston, which is irregular in point of building, but highly favoured as to situation. On viewing the neighbourhood from an elevated part of the town, a traveller is delighted with the number of villages, country-seats, farms, and pleasure-grounds, which he perceives seated on the summit of small hills or in the midst of spacious vallies. In the town, likewise, great improvement has taken place in late years; and the population is upwards of thirty thousand:

'The inhabitants are distinguished for their domestic habits, regularity of living, integrity in their dealings, hospitality to strangers, strict piety and devotion, and respect for the moral and social virtues; upon which depend the happiness and well-being of a community.

'The people of Boston, and of New England in general, were formerly remarkable for a punctilious rigidity of character that differed but little from the manners of the Quakers. They were the immediate descendants of men who had fled from persecution in England; and, as if emigration had soured their dispositions, they in their turn became religious tyrants and persecutors, and committed the most extravagant outrages. In the course of time these puritanical follies wore off with the increasing prosperity of their new settlements; and their frequent intercourse with men of more moderate principles begat in them a greater degree of toleration, and gave them a taste for the innocent amusements of polished society.'—

'Notwithstanding the Bostonians have considerably relaxed from their former rigid manners, and given into the gaiety and amusements of modern times, yet their scrupulous and devout observance of religious worship still continues with little variation; and they perhaps afford beyond any other people, the pleasing proof that social amusements and diversions are not incompatible with, nor need interrupt, the more important and solemn duties which we owe to our Maker. Sundays are observed with the strictest decorum; the town appears as if completely deserted; and scarcely a person is seen walking the streets, except in going to or coming from a place of worship. Indeed all the towns and cities which I have visited in the United States are extremely exemplary in this respect, and present none of ise, bustle, and driving about, so common in the streets of ı on the Sabbath day.—

ere is a material difference in point of character between the ɔf the northern States and those to the southward; there also considerable spirit of rivalry, jealousy, and opposition between The former (speaking in general terms) are a plain, honest, ustrious people; regular in their habits, punctual in their ts, and strongly attached to agricultural and commercial pur-Before the embargo, their merchants traded with all the world; spirit of commercial enterprise had diffused itself in an extra-y manner over those States. Their ships covered the ocean, ısported the commodities of their own country, and of other to every quarter of the globe. A considerable share of their was furnished by their own portion of the Union; but the part was supplied by the southern States. The latter, how-ad but few ships of their own, and cared not who were the, so that they could dispose of their cotton, tobacco, and rice. vould have been equally satisfied to sell their produce to fo-s, and let them take it away in their own vessels, as to sell it to thern merchants; and it is this sort of policy which is said to Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, and others of their party even at y; but I cannot bring myself to believe that there is any foun-for such an assertion.

is true the southern planter acquires his wealth not by the ɔf *his* brow like the New Englander, but by the labour of his . He lolls at his ease in the shady retreat, drinking, smoking, ɔing, surrounded by his slaves and overseers, who furnish him ıe luxuries of life, without the necessity of his leaving the . The northern merchant, on the contrary, is strenuously ex-himself from morning till night; exercising his faculties, ex-g his mind, and enlarging his ideas by continual intercourse eople of every nation, and correspondence in every part of the

wards the conclusion of his work, Mr. Lambert has in-ed biographical notices of several eminent characters in nited States. Mr. Jefferson is described as living with all nplicity of a philosopher and agriculturist; a habit which ı not renounce even when placed in the highest station of public. He was not then, in the opinion of this writer, d in his politics so much by predilection for France, as by a to remain in peace with all the world.—Mr. Madison is 'st President who did not perform any part of consequence war of 1775. Notwithstanding the lofty and hostile ɪf his late public communications, it is almost generally stood that personally his wishes are pacific; and that, if ırty would permit, he would gladly terminate this un-erous contest on the terms offered by our government. iplomatic compositions have been frequently verbose and re; while the course of late events must have abundantly satisfied his countrymen that he is not calculated to shine as a war-minister.—President Adams, with considerable energy and activity, is deemed deficient in the temper which is necessary for the occupier of a ministerial station. — Mr. Randolph is known to the public, on this side of the water, only by his speeches. His figure, says Mr. L., is tall and emaciated, but the disadvantages of a first impression are soon removed by the vivacity of his conversation. He is not gifted, however, with those accommodating manners which are necessary to connect a body of men together, so that his speeches are to be considered rather as the effusions of an individual than the declarations of a party.—Mr. Gallatin, who has so long appeared in the capacity of Secretary to the Treasury, is a native of Geneva, and removed to America about the year 1779. The first part of his career was not creditable to his patriotism, and he is considered as owing his place chiefly to his dexterity in financial details.

The late Joel Barlow was of an age that enabled him to discharge the office of chaplain to a brigade in the revolutionary war; and, at the peace, he made an attempt to enter on the profession of the law. His "Vision of Columbus" was first published in 1787: but neither law nor poetry proving sufficiently profitable, he came over to Europe as agent for the sale of lots of land in the Ohio territory. Here, also, his success was very limited, and the settlement of that fertile district has been owing much more to adventurers from the New England States than to emigrants from Europe. The latter have to combat in America with various difficulties, being ignorant of the quickest mode of clearing land, and unwilling to submit to pass a stormy season in a log-hut, or to live for twelvemonths together on salt provisions. The Americans, on the contrary, consider a forest as their natural habitation; and, like the wandering Indians, they emigrate from spot to spot with the view of increasing their property. Being aware, likewise, of the various disadvantages of uncultivated land, they are less liable to shackle themselves with an unprofitable bargain.

Mr. Barlow finding little encouragement in the sale of the Ohio lands in London, and having committed the imprudence of carrying an address from one of our democratic societies in 1792 to the National Convention of France, it became expedient for him to remain out of England. He now proceeded to figure in the French Revolution; and, when he had seen the vanity of his hopes of liberty in that country, he dedicated his leisure hours to the composition of "The Columbiad," a poem in ten books, and an enlargement of his "Vision of Columbus." He returned to America in 1805, and was again appointed ambassador to Bonaparte in 1812, but died in the course of a journey undertaken to meet Napoleon in Poland.

Mr. Jay, who is chiefly known in this country by the treaty of 1794, is now very far advanced in life, having been born in 1734. He was educated for the law, and was in considerable practice on the breaking out of the war of 1775. Being deputed to Congress, he was chosen President in 1777, and sent afterward as ambassador to Spain and France. He bore a part with Franklin and Adams in the treaty of Paris in 1783; and, on his return to America, he acted first as minister for foreign affairs, and afterward as Chief Justice of the United States, a station which he found it necessary to resign in consequence of the clamour excited against him by the treaty of 1794. He was soon afterward elected Governor of New York, and continued to hold the place for several years, until he determined to withdraw from active life, and to pass his remaining years in retirement.

General Pinkney is, like Mr. Jay, a character of the greatest respectability. He distinguished himself by his courage and conduct in the revolutionary war; and, in the various diplomatic missions with which he has been subsequently charged, his proceedings have been marked by an open and conciliating spirit. —In his notes on other public men, Mr. L. makes (p. 440.) a few observations on the conduct of General Moreau, during his residence in the United States, and combats the ridiculous but very prevalent notion that he was in the habit of transmitting secret intelligence to Bonaparte's government. A journey made by Moreau to New Orleans in 1808 gave rise to a thousand rumours, and created great alarm in the numerous class of people who had become sick of even the name of Revolution.

It is now time to take our leave of Mr. Lambert, whom we shall have no objection to meet again as a traveller and an author, provided that he will give attention to the remarks which we have made on his first volume; and which may be comprized in the plain rule to study condensation and arrangement. His preface and introduction are somewhat in the style of an advertisement; a practice against which we would dissuade him, as being neither creditable nor advantageous. A book of real interest stands in no need of so doubtful an auxiliary; and these expedients are now so common as to lose in a great measure their effect. Neither is it advisable to give such very minute tables of contents, the reader being thus led to expect more than he will occasionally find. — The plates are inserted chiefly in the first volume, and, though of very ordinary quality, are useful, and effectually supply the deficiency of verbal description.

Art. III. *A Portraiture of the Roman Catholic Religion; or an unprejudiced Sketch of the History, Doctrines, Opinions, Discipline, and present State of Catholicism: with an Appendix, containing a Summary of the Laws now in Force against English and Irish Catholics.* By the Rev. J. Nightingale, Author of "A Portraiture of Methodism," &c. 8vo. pp. 547. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

While a Pretender to the British throne existed, whose religious principles were those of the see of Rome, it was the fashion to represent Catholicism as a monster at once deformed and pestiferous; and Protestant Dissenters were equally zealous with members of the Established Church in making repeated attacks on the *scarlet whore of Babylon.* Since, however, the alarm of a Pretender has subsided, "Sermons against Popery" are less frequent; and had not the Catholics, enlightened on the subject of civil rights, and naturally counting on the liberal spirit of the times, asserted their claims to a full participation of the privileges of British subjects, the popular odium, which had been cherished on political accounts, would perhaps gradually have subsided, and we should have regarded the Catholic as no worse a subject for going to Mass than the Methodist for going to the Tabernacle. The apostolic maxim given in Romans, xiv. 5., so characteristic of St. Paul's expanded liberality, "*Let every man freely enjoy his own sentiment,*" (this is Dr. Doddridge's translation,) would have been so far adopted generally, that we should amicably have "agreed to differ;" and our religious opinions would not, any more than our philosophical or other opinions, be considered as disqualifying us for any service to which the King might be pleased to appoint us.

Civil privileges, when bestowed on one denomination of Christian professors to the exclusion of others, operate as a monopoly in favour of the privileged class; and profitable monopolies are never relinquished without a struggle. Catholics, therefore, by asserting their right to be admitted into the market on the same terms with other subjects, have provoked a controversy in which the nature and political operation of their religion become objects of inquiry; it being contended by their Protestant opponents that, if they be good Catholics, they cannot be good British subjects. Against this party, the author of the *Portraiture of the Roman Catholic Religion* generously pleads the Catholic cause; and, though himself a Protestant, and firm in his principles as such, he strenuously contends that nothing exists in the doctrines or the discipline of Catholicism, which ought to operate against its professors as members of the state. A Protestant freely advocating the cause of the Roman

Catholic religion is an amiable novelty, which disposes us to believe that the world is growing rather better than worse; and, if we compliment Mr. N.'s heart, on the present occasion, he receives no more from us than he deserves. He probably will think, however, that we are not so kind to the Catholics as he is himself, when we venture to suggest the possibility of his generosity having in some degree invaded the province of his judgment; and if we doubt whether, in a discussion such as he has undertaken, it be admissible to give a view of the Roman Catholic religion detached from all consideration of Roman Catholic courts, and even of the court of Rome itself. Though we rank among the advocates for Catholic Emancipation, we wish to argue the case fairly; and the connection of Catholics with the See of Rome, or with the Pope, is an objection, solely on the ground of their acknowlegment of a jurisdiction out of the realm, which for their own sakes they ought to obviate. We say, "Make the empire complete within itself, in spirituals as well as in temporals, and enjoy with us the full benefit of it. To emancipate you is our ardent wish; and do you enable us, by removing this single difficulty, to effect it consistently with the principles of sound policy." Mr. N. will tell us that the atrocities and daring assumptions of temporal power, formerly practised by the court of Rome, make no part of the Roman Catholic religion. Granted: but, in taking a view of this religious system, are we to omit to notice this prominent fact, that it authorizes and assists the right of appeal to a court so loaded with crimes and unprecedented despotism? When Mr. Nightingale has executed his projected *Portraiture of the Church of England*, will he deem his picture complete, if it includes nothing more than an account of the Liturgy and the Articles; — will he not exhibit the Church in connection with the State, with the King as its supreme temporal head, with the bishops as appointed by him, and "raising their mitred fronts in courts and parliaments?" The answer is evident; and in like manner he ought to consider Catholicism in all its bearings, especially as the whole point at issue has a political aspect.

It is proper to let this volunteer in behalf of the Catholics explain his own views and motives. 'He was not willing,' he informs us in his preface, 'to forego the pleasure of, at least, endeavouring to shew that the religion of our ancestors has been mistaken, and that unworthy and groundless alarms are excited in consequence of that mistake.'— 'When,' he proceeds, 'murders, and seditions, and plots, and persecutions, are adduced against Roman Catholics, it is sufficient to give this one plain and obvious answer, — they are acts which form no part of the Roman Catholic religion.' The present Catholics are certainly not chargeable with the crimes of their ancestors. It is also to be recollected that Protestants have persecuted in their turn; and that even Calvin and Cranmer manifested a bloody zeal for what they esteemed the truth. In these more liberal times, similar enormities are not likely to occur; and we cannot deem it generous to urge the former burning of heretics, &c. as an argument against Catholic Emancipation. We entirely agree with Mr. N., that 'much in extenuation might be offered on account of the mental darkness, the political bondage, and the mistaken policy of the ages in which these enormities were committed; while much obloquy would be removed, by distinguishing between the acts of princes and politicians, and those of the heads and ministers of religion.' Yet it must not be forgotten that the head of the Catholic church is the only spiritual functionary on record who assumed the monstrous power of deposing kings, and of laying whole empires under his interdicts; and it behoves the sovereigns of Europe not only to protest but to guard against the assumption of this power by the See of Rome, and to distinguish between Catholicism and *Popery*. The latter term we are happy to find is going out of use, and is grating in the ears of Catholics: it is, however, expressive of one point in debate, viz. their spiritual allegiance to the Pope, and therefore in argument cannot be altogether abandoned. It is in one respect the hinge on which the whole of the controversy turns; and though, in the modern arrangements of Europe, little fear may rationally be entertained of the Pope's dispensing power, it is impossible to say what changes will in future happen; and it is a matter of policy to prevent the possibility of such an interference of the Pope in these realms as may, under any circumstance, disturb the allegiance of his Majesty's Catholic subjects. These and former remarks of the same complexion are offered with no hostility to their cause; and we ardently hope that the Catholics will devise means of quieting the apprehensions of our Protestant government on this head.

The sentiments and object of the author of this Portraiture cannot be more clearly placed before our readers than by transcribing the following passage:

'To state with candour, and to delineate with faithfulness, some of the leading features of Catholic history, and all the great doctrines of the Catholic faith, uninfluenced by the zeal of a partisan, or the disingenuous arts of an apologist, is the chief, if not the sole, duty incumbent on the author of this work. If in the discharge of this duty, it should appear that a great majority of our fellow Christians have been, and still are, misunderstood in regard to their tenets, and misrepresented in their history; and that from these mistakes, to give them no harsher a term, have been generated and fostered a spirit and conduct on the part of Protestants, unworthy of their principles, and impolitic and unjust in the results, a most important point will be attained, and a desirable object accomplished: for the liberal genius of the Protestant doctrines is most assuredly hostile to all acts of oppression, and all sentiments manifestly unjust.'

Every review of a subject so important as the nature of Catholicism, that may tend to remove unfounded prejudices, is intitled to the fullest attention; and, as Mr. N. has taken pains to obtain the best information, we have no doubt of the favourable reception of his work.

Whether St. Peter was ever settled as a bishop *at* Rome, (he could not possibly ever have been, in our sense of the word, Bishop *of* Rome,) and whether the list of his successors in this office be or be not correct, are points of little moment in this inquiry; except indeed to those who assert that 'visibility and episcopal ordination are essential to the character of the church of Christ,' and to such the true history of the Popes offers difficulties which we shall not stay either to encounter or to state. Before and even after the conversion of Constantine, which conferred on Christianity a political consequence and stability, the principle of an universal bishop was not generally acknowleged; and Mr. N. seems to lean too much to the assertion of Catholic writers, that "the management and primacy of the whole church had been given to St. Peter:" a position which no Protestant ought to allow, when the only evidence for it is a total misconception of the meaning of the words of Christ to the Apostle, *On this rock I will build my church.* That 'the bishops of Rome, from an early period, held a peculiar authority over a large part of the Christian world,' is also a concession which as a Protestant Mr. N. should not make. He indeed wonders that Protestants should feel sore on this point; yet it is surely of some importance to resist this first *datum* of the advocates for the Pope's supremacy: since, if 'it is by no means clear that St. Peter had any superior rank or authority over the rest of the apostles,' every idea of his primacy in the church at once falls to the ground; and those who arrogate supremacy, as his real or pretended successors, urge an authority to which they have no shadow of claim. Nothing can be more manifest from the resistance offered by Paul to Peter, (Gal. ii. 11.) and from the blame which the former attaches to the latter, than that even the apostles did not acknowlege any paramount authority in Peter, nor regard him as invested with infallibility. Besides, what good reason can be assigned to prove that the See of Rome should domineer over all the churches of Christ? Because this city was the capital of the Roman world, is its bishop to take precedence in the kingdom of Christ, which is not of this world? Considering the obscurity and persecuted state of the Christian church in the first two centuries, its bishops could obtain no very extensive influence; and it was not till Constantine professed the doctrines of the cross, that its ministers, catching the spirit of the world, grew ambitious of dominion: — then, it was easy to find fathers and ecclesiastical historians to write up their consequence, and make out their succession from the apostles. Before the imperial residence was removed to Constantinople, the Bishop of Rome took the lead in spirituals, as his master did in temporal affairs; and, as Mosheim says, this pre-eminence resulted from "those dazzling marks of human power, which have such a mighty influence on the minds of the multitude." Still this pre-eminence, however coveted, was only that of rank, the Bishop of Rome being named before the Bishops of Antioch and Alexandria: but none of the prelates "acknowledged that they derived their authority from the permission and appointment of the Bishop of *Rome*, or that they were created bishops by the *favour of the apostolic see*." Now, if at this period the Bishop of Rome, with all his grandeur, was only Bishop of Rome, all the subsequent high-flown assumptions of the occupiers of this See are deserving, in the eye of reason, of ridicule rather than of grave discussion. We wish Protestants to treat the subject as it merits, and British Catholics to abandon the shackles which these pretensions impose. Their system may emanate from the Roman Catholic church, but let them not be held in thraldom by it.

Mr. Nightingale is inclined to sneer at the account of the cause of Constantine's conversion: but he does not advert to the reason for his adoption of Christianity given by Zosimus, the historian. Perhaps the vision of the cross, and the splendid display of it on the *Labarum*, were intended to conceal the real motives which induced the Emperor to embrace the new faith. Instead of tracing the operation of this mighty revolution in the temporal condition of the church, Mr. N. adopts a statement which was put into his hands by the ingenious Mr. Charles Butler: but we should have been more satisfied if the author of the Portraiture had employed his own pencil. We could not indeed have supposed that he would be so complimentary to any Catholic, as to present the following passage for a summary of historic truth: "Thus from a regular train of historical facts, beginning with the earliest monuments of the Reformation, and ascending *to the time of Christ himself*, we find the supremacy of the Bishop of Rome, both in rank and jurisdiction, an admitted article of Christian belief." — A writer in the capacity of Mr. N. does not perform his duty by offering to the public so manifest a misrepresentation, acknowleging that it is not satisfactory, and then frigidly adding, 'Let those answer it who have a taste for this kind of controversy.' — Of the temporal power of the Pope, this writer wishes to take a distinct view, and to contemplate it by itself: but, as the Roman pontiffs have enjoyed a prominent advantage over the other sovereigns of Europe, by the singular union of ecclesiastical and temporal power, it is proper to estimate the effects of this union; and, though Mr. N. regards the mode of electing to the Papal chair in a favourable light, we cannot coincide with him in opinion, nor think that the history of the Popes justifies his encomium.

In the section on the Council of Nice and the Arian controversy, Mr. N. remarks,

> 'It does not appear, in these proceedings against the Arians, that the Bishop of Rome took any very important or active share, or that he was ready to interpose his influence in the suppression of so dangerous a heresy as it is represented to have been. The Council was called by the Emperor solely, and the Roman Pontiff was not even present at the Assembly, but sent two priests, or proxies, to give his vote and sign the Acts; neither does it appear, that these priests enjoyed any superior rank or influence.'

A canon of the Council of Chalcedon, held about a century after that of Nice, is subsequently quoted as decisive evidence against the primitive universal jurisdiction of the See of Rome.

From these antient councils, the author makes a transition to 'a view of the state of the church, and the attempts at reform previous to the time of Luther;' or from the fourth to the twelfth and following centuries. Here the complaints of Catholics, respecting abuses and disorders which had crept into the church, are noticed; complaints which proceeded so far as to assert 'that there was *almost nothing* sound either in its visible head or in its members:' but it is, at the same time, remarked that the *doctrines* of the Universal Church were in no instance the object of attack. The causes of the Saxon and German Reformation, which followed in the early part of the sixteenth century, are thus enumerated:

> 'I. In the continued profligacy and laxity of the clergy. II. The pride and obstinacy of the Roman court. III. The extravagance and indifference of the supreme Pontiff Leo X. IV. The recent invention of the invaluable art of printing, V. The disgraceful use which Tetzel and others made of the doctrine and sale of indulgences. VI. The persevering boldness of Luther. And, lastly, though by no means the least, VII. The avarice and rapacity of several princes, and inferior magistrates, who instigated and encouraged op-

position to the papal power, that they might themselves partake of the spoils or the prerogatives of the Church.'

When Mr. N. reckons among the causes of the Reformation the invaluable discovery of printing, we are surprized to find him asserting that 'had the moral conduct of the head and ministers of religion been such as became their holy office, it is more than probable that no particular outcry would have been raised against the Catholic doctrines to the present hour.' Independantly of the disgust excited by the immoral lives of the clergy, the Catholic system of faith must have been a matter of doubt as soon as the N. T. came to be generally disseminated; and any person, who entertains this author's sentiments on the evil of uniting the church with the state, will surely think that the Catholic religion must by this time have had *protesters*, even if the Popes had been all moral and estimable characters. Why Mr. Nightingale should be so strenuous an advocate for the sincerity of the faith of Leo X., and pronounce his supposed remark respecting the profitableness of the *fable* of Jesus Christ to be 'a senseless slander,' we cannot perceive: but of this we are very confident, that Leo X. acted more like an infidel than like a true believer. His profuse issue of indulgences manifested his own want of faith in a system so moral as that of Christianity, while it operated as a heavy tax on the credulity of the multitude. It is more likely that he did than that he did not make the speech attributed to him. The issue of dispensations and indulgences is a 'branch of the Catholic religion' which may be *profitable* to Popes, but is not to be found in the *record* (which infidels call *the fable*) of Jesus Christ. Mr. N. terms the sale of indulgences 'a species of traffic:' but, if it belongs to the department of the Papal treasury, how can it be a branch of religion?

Monastic institutions find an advocate in Mr. N.; who, paying tribute to their influence in preserving antient literature, and in promoting the study of it, is not sufficiently attentive to their immoral and anti-social effects. He does not seem to recollect that St. Paul ranks "forbidding to marry" among "the doctrines of devils."

In the account of Martin Luther, the coarse arrogance of this reformer's behaviour to Leo is reprobated, while the forbearance of the Pope in not silencing him by the means employed against John Huss and Jerome of Prague is approved; though, perhaps, the violence of one party and the apparent moderation of the other arose from the same cause, viz. the protection which Luther obtained from the Elector, and his other powerful friends. This German reformer's orthodoxy was not united with Christian charity, and he combated error too much in the spirit of an intolerant. The time, however, was not then arrived for the dissemination of the true principles of religious liberty; and some allowance must be made for him, when we consider the age in which he lived.

Respecting the Influence of the Reformation on the Arts, on Literature, on Religion, and on Morals in general, Mr. N. presents us with some very judicious observations. Its unfavourable operation on the arts is instanced in the decline of church-architecture:

‘The observer, who compares the magnitude, the number, and the magnificence of the structures erected within the compass of three hundred years, (between A. D. 1000 and A. D. 1400,) with the progress of ecclesiastical architecture in England, since the accession of Elizabeth, will find no hesitation in admitting, that within any twenty years of that period, a greater amount of architectural taste, and of wealth and enthusiasm to render that taste effectual, was called into action, than during the whole of the 17th or 18th centuries. The labours of Sir Christopher Wren, unremitted and extensive as they were, scarcely effected so great a progress in ecclesiastical architecture, as was conceived and executed by men whose names are now forgotten. The very conception of Henry the VIIth's chapel demonstrates an enthusiasm of feeling, and a confidence in the limitless extent of his resources, that at once exalts the character of the architect, and evinces the spirit of the age as operated upon by the character of its religion. Whatever may be the ultimate decision of men of taste, on the comparative excellencies of Grecian and Gothic architecture, it must be admitted that in England, the productions of the admirers of the ancients bear no comparison, even as works of genius and taste, with those of the Catholic artists. Even St. Paul's, the greatest effort of English Protestantism, would not have existed but for the model and the example afforded by Catholic enthusiasm. And what comparison can even this structure, and many of the most celebrated efforts of the same architect sustain, with the classical structures that, beneath the sway of Catholicism, have exalted modern Rome into the rival of its parent?’

If, however, in matters of taste and poetry we have profited little by the Reformation, we are great gainers by it in every thing which respects the enlargement of the mind:

‘In all that relates to the conduct of man, to the knowledge of his mental structure, and to the gratification of his natural aptitude for knowledge, the Protestants have proceeded with a progress to which the Catholic religion would have presented the most insurmountable obstacles. The Reformation not only relieved philosophy from the oppression of a religion that abhorred the very approaches to unbounded inquiry, but by the exercise that it gave to the faculties of man, and by the example it afforded of extrication from ancient prejudices, contributed to the activity as well as the freedom of investigation. The very act of thinking differently from the Church of Rome restored an individual to the full exercise of his faculties. He who burst asunder the fetters of habit and education would not rest contented with the devotion of his talents to theological questions: he would employ the powers of which he had recovered the exercise, in making incursions into the regions of science and philosophy.'

Much is expected by this writer from the influence of the Reformation in promoting the cause of pure religious truth; and, in this view of the subject, he predicts the triumph of his own creed, though at present it is that of no national church:

'The Reformation has been of incalculable benefit to the Christian world, inasmuch as it has established a principle, the operation of which will one day destroy every doctrine and practice that has not the plainest injunctions of revelation and the most obvious reason for its support, and exhibit the pure and undefiled faith of Jesus, free from every corruption and every entanglement with which its officious nursing-fathers have so long clogged and embarrassed it.' —

'If Protestants have not yet availed themselves of the full extent of their principles, it is because they do not yet see the entire victory which, under God, they have achieved over *spiritual wickedness in high places*. We are still in the morning of a gospel day: but the glorious luminary of truth advances rapidly to its meridian splendour. Already the fogs disperse — the noxious mists begin to evaporate, and soon will the Christian world be illuminated by the invigorating rays of the Divine effulgence; and the fair and lovely form of truth appear freed from the shackles of human establishments, obnoxious tests, persecuting laws, unmeaning mysteries, priestly and courtly frauds, contradictory and ridiculous creeds, and impositions and anathemas, as pointless as they are absurd, and as useless as they are false.'

We come now to the professed object of this work, intitled 'A brief Summary of the Catholic Doctrines,' which are discussed in several sections, containing many curious particulars. Mr. N. allows that some difficulty attends this part of his subject: but he thinks that it is the fairest way to let Catholics explain their own religion; and we think so too, provided that they offer such explanations as tally with facts and the decisions of the Church. We must not lose sight of this provision; because, though individuals may undertake to pourtray the doctrines of the Catholic church, we cannot admit their account in opposition to breviaries, creeds, councils, and papal ordinances. In the first document here given, called "Roman Catholic Principles in reference to God and the King," the anonymous writer tells us that

"The guilt of sin, or pain eternal due to it, is never remitted by indulgences; but *only such temporal punishments* as remain due after the guilt is remitted; these indulgences being nothing else than *a mitigation or relaxation upon just causes, of canonical penances*, enjoined by the pastors of the Church on penitent sinners, according to their several degrees of demerit. And *if any abuses or mistakes be sometimes committed, in point either of granting or gaining indulgences, through the remissness or ignorance of particular persons, contrary to the ancient custom and discipline of the Church; such abuses or mistakes cannot rationally be charged on the Church, nor rendered matter of derision, in prejudice to her faith and doctrine.*"

Let us compare this statement with the words of the Indulgence granted by Leo X., and dispersed in Germany by Tetzel *. The Indulgence runs thus:

"I, by the authority of the blessed apostles, Peter and Paul, and of the most holy Pope, granted and committed to me in these parts, do absolve thee, first, from all ecclesiastical censures, in whatever manner they may have been incurred, and then *from all thy sins, transgressions, and excesses, how enormous soever they be*, even from such as are reserved for the cognizance of the holy see; and, as far as the keys of the holy church extend, I remit to thee all punishment which thou dost deserve *in purgatory on their account*; and I restore thee to the holy sacraments of the church, to the unity of the faithful, and to that innocence and purity which thou didst possess at baptism; so that when thou dost die, *the gates of punishment shall be shut, and the gates of the paradise of delight shall be opened.*"

It is impossible to reconcile the account of the limited application of Indulgences with this copy of that which is said to have been distributed by Tetzel. Did Leo X. deny the commission given to Tetzel, or restrict his power of the keys in the manner here represented by the Catholic apologist? — At p. 320. the subject is thus represented: 'By indulgences granted by the popes and prelates of the church, persons are discharged from temporal punishment, here and in purgatory;' and Mr. N. adds,

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* Mr. Nightingale observes that this specimen of one of Tetzel's pardons has been 'copied from Dr. Robertson into almost every account of popery which has hitherto issued from the Protestant press; and yet it is notorious that, the genuineness of this instrument is extremely doubtful.' He even calls it roundly a 'nonsensical imposition,' and a 'blasphemous and ridiculous fraud.' He has not, however, stated any grounds for assigning this character to it; and, till its spuriousness be proved, we are warranted in arguing from it as genuine. Robertson quotes it from Seckendorf as a fact; and, though he remarks that the terms of it are so extravagant as to *appear almost incredible*, he adds that Chemnitius "has published several of Tetzel's discourses, which prove that these expressions were neither singular nor exaggerated." (History of Charles V. Vol. ii. 4to. p. 81. note.) Roscoe, in his life of Leo, does not specifically advert to the document in question: but he quotes Fabroni as saying of Tetzel, (Leonis X. Vita, p. 132.) "*Pudet referre quæ ipse et dixit et fecit, quasi Legatus e cælo missus fuisset ad quod libet piaculum expiandum atque purgandum:*" (Roscoe's life of Leo, Vol. iii. 4to. p. 151. note.) a description which well accords with the terms of the suspected *indulgence*, and authorizes a belief in its fidelity.

'This is the real state of the case, with respect to indulgences. If some Catholics in former times have (as it must be confessed has been the case) abused this branch of church-discipline, no blame ought to attach to their successors of the present times. It is in the greatest degree illiberal and unjust, to charge any body of Christians with all the abuses to which wicked men will ever profane even the best of doctrines. I am no advocate for indulgences, according to any form yet prescribed by the Church of Rome; but I must confess it will afford me the most sincere satisfaction, if any thing I can say to elucidate this point shall remove prejudice and mistake from the minds of any of my Protestant brethren; and, with this view, I will extract the reasoning and statement which a learned and pious "Minister of the Church of England" has published relative to the practice of granting indulgences.

'It is asked "Whether indulgences are not abominable, which either give leave to sin, or grant the pardon of past sins, and these obtained for a sum of money?

'"This was the opinion I formerly had of indulgences; but since I began to follow other measures, besides taking upon trust, upon diligent examination I have found, that indulgences in the Church of Rome are neither pardons for sin nor leave to commit sin, but the same which has been practised in the purest ages of the Church; and that is, a remission of some part of those canonical penances, which were wont to be inflicted for some greater crimes. This power of binding and loosing we own in the Church, and retain it in our canons; and 'tis yet in force in respect of some crimes."'

This example is adduced to shew that we may not implicitly rely on apologists; and that, in exhibiting the doctrines of the Roman Catholic church, the shortest and fairest way is to copy (as Mr. N. has partly done) from writings issued by authority, and which are universally admitted to be the standard of Catholic faith, worship, ceremonies, and discipline. It is pleasing to find that, in the most essential articles of religion, Catholics and Protestants are agreed; (see p. 294.) and, as the points in which they differ are of no importance in a civil view, (if we except the appeal to the Pope, which we trust will be obviated,) no objection can fairly be urged against Catholic Emancipation. By making tradition paramount to Scripture, an obstacle is placed against an union of the two churches: but, if they cannot form one spiritual communion, they may constitute one political body. At all events, Catholics and Protestants should be careful not to mistake and particularly not to misrepresent each other. *

A section, at the end of the work, is expressly devoted to the discussion of the subjects 'of persecution and the violation of faith with heretics;' and the Catholics could not have found in their own body a more ingenious and able councellor than in this their Protestant defender. Knowing that it was in vain to deny that the court of Rome has formerly been a sanguinary court, and that thousands have fallen sacrifices to its persecuting spirit, Mr. Nightingale first tries to abate our resentment by reminding us that more has been said and written than is true, and then desires us to recollect (as we have before observed) that the part of the charge which remains uncontroverted does not attach to Catholics of the present day; who are no more concerned with it than to abhor and lament the cruelties which their ancestors, urged by a blind zeal, were induced to commit. Farther to lower the high tone of invective which we are apt to adopt on this occasion, we are reminded that 'Protestants have themselves been guilty of persecution; and that not only of Roman Catholics, but also of one another.' It is liberal to translate *la souffrance* of Bossuet (p. 442.) by the English word *suffering:* but we doubt this version. As to 'the cruel accusation against Catholics, of not keeping faith with heretics,' Mr. N. strenuously denies that 'any such opinion either is or ever was an article of their church:' but he surely carries his liberality too far, when he admits Mr. O'Leary's statement of the trial and execution of John Huss to prove that he suffered not for heresy but for dangerous political opinions. If the Emperor Sigismond thought that Huss was a rebel, he would not have given him a safe conduct. Besides, if we turn to Lenfant's History of the Council of Constance, (Whitley's translation, Vol. i. p. 431.) we find these words: "The sentence of the Council is express, that John Huss is a notorious, scandalous, obstinate, and incorrigible heretic."

In his Portraiture, Mr. Nightingale has endeavoured, with a commendable spirit, to detect mistakes, and to expose misrepresentations, thus doing justice to Catholicism; and, while he openly proclaims his own opinions and his zeal as a Protestant,

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'* The chief points on which we have been in the habit of mistaking, and, consequently, of misrepresenting, Roman Catholics, appear to be the following. The opinions held by some Catholics concerning the infallibility and power of the Pope, — the notions concerning works of supererogation, — the use of images, — the practice of persecution, — the opinions relative to the salvation of heretics, — the use of the Scriptures, — and, the belief in miracles.'

he labours to remove every aspersion from the Catholic body, and to convince his readers that they are intitled to respect as good Christians and to all the privileges of British subjects. He allows, indeed, that he has softened the darker shades of the picture, and he is romantic in the anticipation of a flood of light and knowlege which is overspreading the whole Christian world. Like those prophets who view the future only through the lens of imagination, he probably sees more than others will find realized. Had he even waited till the moment at which we are writing, how different would have been his finale! Then he could not have complimented Italy and Spain as beginning to be emancipated from superstition and despotism; nor have promised a speedy amelioration of the whole frame and structure of the Christian world. By the rapid vicissitudes of human affairs, brilliant visions are dissipated almost as soon as they arise; and though philosophers, when their hopes are disappointed, still console themselves with the common adage, *Magna est veritas et prævalebit*, its accomplishment seems too likely to remain in the future tense. While the virtuous and well-informed are greatly outnumbered by the ignorant, worldly-minded, and vicious, truth will be oppressed rather than encouraged, and error will continue to be decorated with all the badges of fashion and popularity.

ART. IV. *Madame de* Staël *on Germany.*

[*Article concluded from the Review for April.*]

IN closing our last article concerning Mad. de Staël's work, it might have been observed that the German poets of the English school have in general fallen short of their models; as Klopstock, of Milton, — Goëthe, of Shakspeare, — Haller, of Pope, — and Kleist, of Thomson, — whom they severally imitated: — but the German poets of the French school have as frequently surpassed their models. Wieland's Tales are superior to the joint efforts in this line of Lafontaine and Voltaire; Ramler's Odes are more Horatian than the lyric poems of Jean-Baptiste Rousseau; and Gleim is more Anacreontic than Panard; while Lessing's dramas and dramatic criticisms counterpoise those of Diderot. Be it, however, acknowleged that Buirger excels any of our British ballad-makers; and that, in "Tales of Wonder," German literature is richer than our own.

We are now called to survey the Drama; a department of art which Madame de Staël is peculiarly adapted to criticise. Women are naturally quick of hearing, and aware of what they may be seen to hear; superfluity and indelicacy vanish alike before them. The habit of attending Parisian spectacles must also have founded that taste for unity of action and completeness of plot, which is so rare in our Gothic plays. Whatever flower the poet detaches from the shrubbery of nature, to be made an object of separate contemplation or imitation, it ought to be a choice and entire specimen; and no withered leaves, adventitious insects, or intertwisted woodbine, should be suffered to divert the attention from centering on its object.

Chapter xv. converses on the dramatic art. The Germans, like the English, are too patient; as if, from sluggishness of mind, they required to be twice told in order to hear or understand. If our representations were shorter and cheaper, they would be attended more frequently and more willingly; and the contemptuous barbarism of going in at the close of the third act might be abolished. Large theatres indirectly occasion these faults; it is not worth while to light them up for a short exhibition, or a small audience; and large theatres, which also necessitate a caricaturing style of acting and declaiming, result from the pernicious monopoly which is conceded by law to the two patent play-houses.

The sixteenth chapter analyzes the dramatic works of Lessing. His "Minna von Barnhelm" has succeeded on the London stage; and his "Emilia Galotti," of which the first four acts are good, has been translated in Thomson's German Theatre: but the catastrophe, which is that of Virginia, is not according to modern manners. "Nathan the Wise," of which Mr. W. Taylor, junior, of Norwich, gave a somewhat exotic translation in 1805, is here praised as Lessing's best dramatic poem: but, though it breathes a liberal philosophy, it is fitter for the closet than the stage. "The Monk of Libanon" is not discussed. One of Lessing's household tragedies, also passed over by Mad. de Staël, is intitled 'Miss Sara Samson:" it has been transfused into Italian, and keeps possession of the theatres in Lombardy. As the scene lies in England, perhaps the play might be adapted to our attention.

Schiller passes next in review; and the seventeenth chapter treats of his play of "The Robbers," which was translated into English in 1792, and of "Don Carlos," of which a translation appeared in 1798 The following chapter treats on the tragedy of "Wallenstein," translated by Mr. Coleridge in 1800; and "Mary Stuart," translated by Mr. Mellish in 1801: both these versions are excellent. To Mary Stuart is justly awarded a preference over all Schiller's dramas: it is a truly heroic tragedy, of which the fable is grand and complete, the characters are distinct and consistent, and the situations are striking and pathetic This play ought to be acted on our theatres. Germans may even be allowed to doubt whether, with the same topic, Shakspeare could have produced an equal work of art.

The nineteenth chapter continues the survey of Schiller's dramas. "Joan of Arc" is analyzed: it may contain strokes of genius: but the total departure from historic fact, in causing the heroine to fall in love with an Englishman, and to perish on the field of battle, destroys all association of identity. The character of Joan of Arc has been mistaken hitherto both by the poet and the historian: we attempted some corrective criticism on this subject at p. 126. Vol. lxxi. "The Bride of Messina" is fitter for an opera than a play: the words are suited to recitative; the chorus continually intervenes; the pageantry is superb; and an improbable parallelism of incident is produced, which is worthy of the ballet. The sentiments are in the loftiest style of Greek tragedy, and announce a writer fresh from the translation of Æschylus.

Chapter xx. comments on "Wilhelm Tell." Of this vast and noble tragedy, of this dramatic epopea, which depicts a great and entire historical event, with a vividness and a loftiness which seize the memory and the fancy, Mad. de Staël has given a skilful epitome. The advantages of the Gothic form of drama, over the Grecian, or the French, are peculiarly apparent in subjects of this kind. Nothing but the scene of the apple could have been exhibited in a French play; the rest must have been mere narration. Some of our travelled poets should undertake to enrich our language with it.—Of "Fiesco," which was translated in 1796, and of "Cabal and Love, or the Minister," which was translated by Mr. Lewis in 1797, no notice is taken. The former, of which we spoke in Vol. xxii. p. 204., surely deserved a critical commentary.

Schiller unites the energies of the first tragic poets: he is an Æschylus educated by Shakspeare. It is in *greatness* that his excellence consists. With him every expression, every emotion, every character, is colossal. He magnifies the inner feelings not only into visibility, but into enormity. An unpolished rudeness accompanies and enhances the majesty of his poetic sculpture; and his bold dilatations, like those of the painter Caravaggio, seem at times to border on caricature. Far from studiously discriminating between slight diversities of moral hues, a garish contrast marks and signalizes his personages. As if he were afraid that the audience should be at a loss to know what sort of being he is endeavouring to depict, he writes as it were in capitals, under his tyrant or his patriot, the purpose for which their portraits are intended. Sometimes, he oversteps the modesty of nature and the usages of refinement, to denude the figure which he delineates: like the flugelman of a regiment, he over-acts the movements which he would excite in others. This palpability of intention adapts him singularly for an audience that is sluggish of impression, for societies in the earlier stages of refinement, or for the classes that are only in progress towards it. He is more skilled in drawing men than women; and in imaging the bold, rude, fierce, and angry chieftain, than the humane, generous, polished, and feeling hero.

Goëthe succeeds to Schiller; and the twenty-first chapter analyzes "Goëtz of Berlichingen," and "Count Egmont." Goëtz, which was translated by Mr. W. Scott in 1799, is one of the earliest successful imitations of the Shakspeare-form of tragedy which the German theatre produced; and it has materially contributed to the adoption on that stage of the Gothic plan of drama. Count Egmont is, however, deservedly preferred to Goëtz as a work of art, and is one of the few master-pieces of the German stage which have not yet been translated into English.

Not contented with success in the Gothic style, Goëthe has attempted the Greek manner by his "Iphigenia in Tauris." In this beautiful drama, he has surpassed every modern imitator of the antique classical tragedy. Milton's *Agonistes*, and Glover's *Medea*, are quoted among our own best approximations to the works of the antients; and Maffei's *Merope* and Racine's *Phèdre* are ranked higher by the Italian and French critics: but Milton is stiff, and Glover is cold, and Maffei is dull, and Racine is galant. Goëthe alone attains the purity and simplicity, the tenderness and loftiness, of his models; and, above all, that locality of range in his ideas, which can cling with familiar fondness about every detail concerning Greece, and nowhere betrays the contamination of a modern acquirement, or taste. In reading the Iphigenia of Goëthe, we seem again to drink with the old world at the pure well-head of poesy, and to enjoy its freshest coolest waters. The thousand streams which, lower down, carry into it their fertilizing copiousness, have not yet troubled its clearness, or neutralized its flavour. It is the beverage which nature gives to her favourite sons, and which the filtering stones of luxury can at best but emulate.—We have heard that the translation of this tragedy, published in 1793 by Mr. Taylor of Norwich, was singularly well received in Germany, and was reprinted by Voss at Berlin. We spoke of it in Vol. xi. N.S. p. 51.

The "Torquato Tasso" of Goëthe is an imitation of his own Iphigenia; an attempt to apply the same polished plainness of manner to incidents of the modern world. The character of Tasso is consummately well-drawn, and accords with history and with nature: Werter's irritability re-appears in it, justified by a higher sense of conscious greatness, and darkened by a Rousseau-like vein of mistrust. Antonio also is a true and good delineation. The second act, however, is trailing, and the catastrophe vexatious; and this unsatisfactory solution inequitably associates itself with our estimate of the poem: we feel the disappointment of hope, and mistake it for the disappointment of taste.

Chapter xxiii. treats of "Faustus," which we have sufficiently discussed already in our lxiid Volume, p. 491.; and from which we selected as a specimen the very scene that attracts the attention of Mad. de Stäel.

Some notice was due to the "Clavigo" of Goëthe, a household tragedy after the manner introduced by Lillo to England, and by Diderot to France: it was translated into English in 1798, and is the best piece of the kind in the German language.

Goëthe wants energy: a somewhat effeminate fear of distortion occasions him to lead away his characters from the extremes of emotion: but he possesses the suppleness and versatility of the most creative dramatic writers. Variable as Proteus, or Puck, to him every new metamorphosis is equally easy. In antient Greece or modern Germany,—in Italy, Spain, or England,—among witches, gods, or elves,—in heaven, or in hell,—he seems alike always at home. The linguist of every literature, the citizen of every dominion, he appears like Fortunatus in successive regions with equal popularity. With all the plasticity of Shakspeare in shaping distinct characters, he has greater critical knowlege of times and places, and suits better to the age and nation the trains of thought which are ascribed to his personages: he consults more learnedly the costume of idea; and he attains a stricter fidelity of local colouring. His delicate shades of ethic discrimination,—his sharp insight, especially, into the feminine character,—his truth of nature,—and his inexhaustible variety,—cannot be too much admired. The reverse of Schiller, he effects not his delineations by a few bold and prominent strokes, but by the correct delicacy and closely characteristic definition of his details. The colouring of Schiller is too glaring; that of Goëthe is too faint. Schiller makes his whole impression at first; Goëthe is the more deeply valued, the more repeatedly he is studied. Schiller has a vague grandeur, Goëthe a faithful precision. Schiller is more heroic, Goëthe more natural. Schiller, like Michael Angelo, sketches gods; Goëthe, like Raphael, copies men; and to the observer, though not to the enthusiast, this is the higher praise.

In the twenty-fourth chapter, we are introduced to the dramatic works of Werner, whose "Luther" we criticized at some length in Vol. lxii. p. 497. His next best tragedy is "Attila." The rest scarcely merited so extensive an analysis as that which is here allotted to them. The success of Werner has resulted much from the arts of the theatre: he understands the importance of frequently shifting the scene, and of removing the action progressively into a more imposing locality: his Melpomene comes accompanied by pageantry and music; she has obsequies, if not grief, and elegies, if not tears: but the literary worth of his dialogue does not often announce an enduring classical rank.

The succeeding chapter is devoted to the drama of Kotzebue; a powerful writer, who is undervalued by Madame de Staël. No dramatist strikes home to the heart so often. He paints and he inspires the luxurious woe of self-applauding sympathy, the triumphs of pity, of affection, and of benevolence, and the headlong immolations of impassioned feeling. Glowingly interesting beyond any of his rivals, he has indeed less energy than Schiller, less variety and truth than Goëthe, and less exactness of local description than modern criticism requires: but his situations are in a wonderful degree striking and trying, picturesque and pathetic. With the rapidity of Sterne, he can realize any alternations of emotion; and, like the April lightning, he can command at a flash a shower of tears or the smile of sunshine. If his effect be not ratified by the judgment, it is at least irresistible to the feeling; his ready cordiality of tone is secure at least of temporary sympathy, in every honest child of humanity. The morality of Kotzebue, however, is not wholly correct. A foe to meanness, he commits the theoretical blunder of mistaking chastity for one of its forms. Too indulgent for justice to the rashness of impulse and the errors of affection, he is thought to excite a laxity without remorse, and a tolerance without dignity. To be cold, and prudent, and guarded, is to be drest for the path of virtue: but Kotzebue provokes the warm sensibilities, the unreserved sacrifices, the frank avowals; and these may owe to theatric applause a dangerous welcome in private and real life.

Comedy is the subject of the twenty-sixth chapter. This is a more local form of art than tragedy: ridicule is not a citizen of the world. Hence, comedy will seldom bear translating. The *Puss in Boots* of Tieck is noticed as the boldest and most singular comedy of the Germans; and talking animals are praised as an agreeable variation of theatrical resource.

In professing, in chap. xxvii., to describe the German actors, Mad. de Staël forgets them all, to talk of Talma the favourite of the Parisians: the digression is somewhat misplaced.

The next chapter proposes to examine the novels of the Germans. Of the first and highest class, only Werter's Sorrows can deserve to be named. Of second-rate novels, the Sternbald of Tieck, and some fragments of J. Paul Richter, are noticed; one of which, the dream of an Atheist, has induced Mad. de S. to pay it the compliment of translation into her pages.

Chapter xxix. pretends to give an account of the German historians: but the information here offered is mortifyingly defective, and not critically characteristic. Literary, scientific, and ecclesiastical history have occupied many excellent writers among the Germans, who are here not even named. This section ought never to have been undertaken; the needful preliminary knowlege not having been acquired.

The thirtieth chapter is consecrated to Herder, our judgment of whom was long ago given. See Vol. xx., N. S., p. 524.

The xxxist chapter is chiefly occupied about the name of W. Schlegel, an eloquent and eminent writer and lecturer on criticism, to whose appretiations Mad. de Staël is obviously and avowedly indebted.

In the thirty-second chapter, we have a glimpse of the state of the fine arts. To the painting of Schick, to the sculpture of Thorwaldsen, and to the music of Gluck and Mozart, a liberal and tasteful homage is paid.

Part the third of Mad. de Staël's work undertakes an account of the philosophical and ethical writings of the Germans; and the fourth part, of their religious writers and sects. These two capacious dissertations are subdivided respectively into twenty-one and into twelve chapters, forming together the whole of the third volume. In our opinion, these entire thirty-three chapters partake the same imperfections with the twenty-ninth chapter of the preceding volume; appearing to us to be founded on insufficient study, and to give a defective and sometimes an erroneous account of the matters undertaken to be investigated. To correct errors, however, so much carping must be exercised, and to supply omissions so much prosing is requisite, that we shall lazily drop asleep in our old attitude of admiration. The state of college-literature in Germany is indeed not lady's work; and if Mad. de Staël had handed over to M. Villers the task of mapping its present condition, France would have had more chance of a profound and trustworthy estimate. Indeed, in future editions of this elegant work, we should advise Mad. de Staël totally to forget the third volume, which detracts more from the authority than it adds to the instruction of the whole. The second chapter, which treats of English philosophy, may serve to reveal to readers here the manner in which German philosophy is discussed. Theology is *sippingly tasted.* The prodigious revolution effected by the modern scripture-critics, in the established churches of Prussia and Saxony, scarcely seems to have been perceived:—a revolution which accomplishes the alliance of scriptural religion and philosophy, and which makes anti-supernaturalism (to borrow a technical word of the Germans) become the doctrine of the pulpit.

The Mohammedans tell us that their Koran was written with a plume of the angel Gabriel's wing, which had the property of stating truth in the forms of beauty, so that all nations should draw nigh to read. This enviable pen Mad. de Staël seems to have borrowed. Like the paintress Rosalba, whose portraits in crayons form so conspicuous an ornament of the Dresden gallery, she depicts with a likeness which every person knows, with an embellishment which every person welcomes, and with a brilliant glow of colouring which every person admires and applauds.

ART. V. *Capt.* Von Krusenstern's *Voyage round the World, translated by* R. B. Hoppner, Esq.

[*Article concluded from p.* 125.]

WE have already traced the progress of the Nadeshda and the Neva, from the outset of their voyage to the arrival of the former at Kamtschatka. Captain Krunsenstern having repaired his ship, and recruited his stock of provisions, sailed from the bay of Awatchka on the 7th of September, 1804, for Japan; having on board the ambassador from the Emperor of all the Russias to the Kubo or Emperor of Japan. This was at a season of the year in which storms are frequent in those seas, and the Nadeshda did not fail to experience them.

In approaching the south-east cape of Niphon, the principal of the Japanese islands, Captain K. searched for some islands which, according to the early Spanish charts of the northern Pacific Ocean, are situated near that Cape, designated by the date of their supposed discovery, 1664, and with the name Vulcano: but he could not find them, though he sailed close to the situations assigned to them in the charts. The traveller Gemelli Careri relates that, in the year 1664, a Spanish galleon named the San Josef, sailing near the south-east part of Japan, saw land which was believed to be three small islands: other navigators, in subsequent voyages, reported that they fell in with islands near the same situation; and on their authority, islands marked as above described, and others with the date 1716, have been laid down in the charts: but a memoir published at Madrid in 1809, on the astronomical observations made by the Spanish navigators, and written by the Spanish geographer Don Josef Espinosa, mentions that, in August 1801, the Spanish frigate San Rafael sailed over the spots on which groupes of islands are marked with the dates of the years 1664 and 1716, and found no land. The author of the Memoir expresses his opinion that the land made by the galleon San Josef, and believed to be three islands, was part of the south-east coast of Japan, seen at such a distance that only the more elevated parts were visible above the horizon. This opinion is quoted in Captain Burney's Chronological History of Voyages; with a remark that, if islands were really discovered near this place, as reported, and the disappointment of late navigators is attributable to the incorrectness of the early reckonings, they should be sought to the eastward of their marked situations.

September the 28th, the Nadeshda came in sight of some of the southern of the Japanese islands. In coasting Satszuma, Captain Krusenstern thus describes the prospect afforded by the country:

'We sailed at a very trifling distance from the land, and had a perfect view of the various picturesque situations which rapidly succeed each other. The whole country consists of high pointed hills, at one time appearing in the form of pyramids, at others of a conical form. Liberal as nature has been in the adornment of these parts, the industry of the Japanese has not a little contributed to their beauty; for nothing indeed can equal the extraordinary degree of cultivation every where apparent!'

On coming near the Gotto islands, Captain K. relates:

'During the whole day we were surrounded by a number of small Japanese vessels that sailed about us in different directions, never approaching near enough to speak with us, but on the contrary most carefully avoiding us. We made signs to them, and hailed them by their countrymen, but all in vain. As they are forbidden the least intercourse with strangers, and on this account dare not give any answer even to the most simple question; we would not bring them into danger by calling them any longer, although we could not help wondering at the absolute dependence and great self-denial of these people.'

About the 8th of October, the ship anchored in the harbour of Nangasaki, the only port of Japan left free for the entrance of foreign traders, if that term may be applied to a few Chinese Jonks, and the two Dutch merchant-ships which are admitted there annually from Batavia.

In the year 1792, an embassy had been sent to Japan by order of the Empress Katherine the Second, which had found a favourable reception from the Kubo, or Japanese monarch; and a written permission was then obtained for a Russian ship to visit Nangasaki annually for the purposes of trade. The Russians, however, had made no use of this permission: some umbrage had been taken by the Japanese court at the want of splendor in the embassy; and the letter to the Japanese monarch was not sent from the Empress herself, but only from the governor of Siberia. On this occasion, therefore, the letter and the presents came immediately from the Emperor Alexander; and every precautionary step, that suggested itself, was taken to prevent a failure of success in this embassy, the principal object of which was to recover the privilege which had been suffered to lapse through neglect.

Captain Krusenstern makes some remarks on the silence observed by the Dutch respecting the affairs of Japan; and he conjectures that it may have proceeded from the Japanese government expressing disapprobation at the writings of Kæmpfer and Thunberg, which are well known to them by their Dutch interpreters. Probably, also, the Dutch themselves have chosen, for their own particular interest, to refrain from circulating information respecting this country. 'They have never,' says Captain K., 'even published a decent map of Firando or Nangasaki, the copy in Kæmpfer being only a bad Japanese plan.'

The Nadeshda was boarded by a Japanese officer as she entered the port, and questioned. The captain says that they certainly expected to be allowed more liberty than the Dutch enjoy here, but found themselves greatly mistaken: though some trifling favours were shewn to the ambassador, which were entirely unprecedented in Japan:

> 'The first great proof of their jealousy was evinced in their taking from us all our powder and fire-arms, even to the fowling-pieces belonging to the officers, among which were some of considerable value; and it was not until after four months' constant entreaties and representations that these latter were returned to them in order to be cleaned, though many of them were entirely destroyed by the time they were restored. The officers were indeed allowed to retain their swords, a favour which was never shown to the Dutch, and the soldiers were permitted to keep their musquets and bayonets. This last the Dutch have never been in a condition to demand, since they have always had the precaution not to show themselves here with a similar military attendance: but what really astonished me was, that the ambassador was not only allowed to carry his guard on shore with him, but that these were even permitted to retain their fire-arms. This favour was indeed granted to him with great reluctance, and the interpreters endeavoured, during

several days, to prevail on him to yield up this point. They represented to him that it was not only against the laws of the country, but that it would shock the people to see armed soldiers of another nation in their country; that such a case had hitherto never occurred, and that it would be dangerous to comply with the demand; but when they found that these reasons could not induce the ambassador to forego his guard, they strove to prevail on him to take only half the number on shore, but in this too he would not give way. That they should not allow the armed soldiers of a foreign nation to land in their country was perhaps the most pardonable of their pretensions; for even in the most enlightened countries of Europe this practice is unknown, and no ambassador has hitherto considered it as an affront to enter a foreign country without soldiers. The case was however too important for the governor to decide upon; and as a whole month was spent in negotiating it before the ambassador was allowed to land, it is most probable that a courier was sent on this account to Jeddo or Miaco for instructions.'

M. Resanoff, the Russian ambassador, judged that, with a proud people like the Japanese, it was essential towards procuring their respect to be punctilious in the extreme; and this idea accounts for his insisting so determinedly on landing with a Russian guard. The number, however, could have made no extraordinary appearance or impression, since all the persons embarked in the ship at the time of her leaving Europe amounted to only sixty-five.

Captain K. continues:

'After this small triumph over the Japanese, I must return to the insults they obliged us to submit to in the full extent of the word. We were not only forbidden to go on shore, but not even allowed to row about within a short distance of the ship, nor was it until after a six weeks' negotiation that a place was granted us, at a trifling distance, as a walk, and this only in consideration of the pretended illness of the ambassador. This place was close to the shore in a confined bay, and was shut in on the land-side by a high wall of bamboos; and although its whole length did not exceed an hundred paces, and its width at the most was forty, there were two watch-houses erected in its immediate vicinity. One single tree, but not a blade of grass, adorned this promenade, which was entirely upon a rocky ground. This place of course could not answer its intended purpose, nor was it used as such; but it was of great advantage for our astronomical observations, which the Japanese did not in any way attempt to disturb. As soon as any boat put off from the ship, for Kibatsch, for so this promenade was called, a fleet of ten or fifteen vessels immediately put themselves in motion, surrounding the boat on all sides, and in this same manner it was conducted back again.

'The acquaintance which I had formed on the first day of our arrival with the captains of the Dutch ships, made a continuation of our intercourse very desirable, but I was never allowed to visit them, nor was any Dutchman permitted to come on board our ship. The barbarous intolerance of the Japanese government even went so far, as to forbid our forwarding letters by the ships going to Batavia, thus depriving us of the pleasure of sending to our families an account of our welfare The ambassador alone was allowed to transmit a report to the Emperor, but he was obliged to content himself with merely giving a short account of our passage from Kamtschatka to Nangasaky, and to acquaint his Majesty with the welfare of all persons on board his ship. This letter to the Emperor was to be translated by the interpreters into Dutch, and a copy of the original left with the governors, written with such accuracy that every line was to terminate with the same letter as the original. This copy was delivered to the governor, and the original, after they had been compared together, was sent on board by two of his secretaries, in whose presence it was sealed. When the Dutch ships sailed, we were ordered upon no acccount to send a boat off to them: and when I wished Captains Musquetier and Belmark a happy voyage, as they passed by me, and inquired after their health, the only answer I received was a sign with their speaking trumpet; for which the chief of the Dutch factory apologized in a letter to the ambassador, saying that the captains had been most positively forbidden to utter the least sound in answer to our questions.'

When at length permission was obtained for the ambassador and his guard to land, a large building called Megasaky, very similar to the Dezima on which the factory of the Hollanders is placed, was appointed for his residence. This Megasaky was situated on a neck of land, and so close to the sea that, on two sides of the house, at every high tide, the water came up to the windows. A lofty bamboo fence also surrounded the whole building, with the additional security of gates, double locks, and guards.

'They counted always the number of persons who came on shore, and the boat was never allowed to return without a similar number; and if any officer of the ship wished to pass the night in Megasaky, one of the persons residing on shore was obliged to go back in his stead; and in like manner, when any officer belonging to the ambassador's suite was desirous of sleeping on board, some sailor had to fill his place on shore: for the appointed number of persons residing there was neither to be increased nor diminished, nor was any attention paid to their quality in this respect, but only to their numbers.'

On the other hand, every request for provisions, refreshments, or materials of any kind, was immediately fulfilled; and 8000 lbs. of biscuit and other provisions were furnished to the ship: but the Russians were not allowed to purchase any thing for money.—Magistrates reside at Nangasaki, called Banjos; and one of the principal of them came to visit the ship, bringing with him the Director of the Dutch factory.

The magistrate immediately entered the ship: but the Director was obliged to remain in the boat till the Banjos chose to send him word that he might come on board, which was not done till after he had been kept waiting a full hour.

'The Director had scarcely entered the cabin with his suite, consisting of his secretary, the two captains of the Dutch ships that were here, and a Baron Pabst, when they were all obliged to remain during several minutes in an inclined posture, which they were called upon to do, by a most insolent order from the interpreter: "*Myn Heer Opperhoofd, compliment voor de Opper Banjos!*" (Mr. President, make your bow to the Head Banjos.) This submissive, and at the same time degrading attention, was not answered even by a nod. The compliments, as they are called, of the Dutch, are something between the bows of the Europeans and Japanese, which last consist in throwing yourself flat on the ground, touching the earth with your head, and crouching backwards and forwards according as you may be spoken to by your superior.'

We are told that the banjos always conducted themselves with great dignity, and that they never laughed, but occasionally shewed their satisfaction by a smile. Captain K. has described many particulars of Japanese customs in the order in which they naturally occurred to him, being interwoven with the journal of the proceedings of the embassy; which method of description, though perhaps not the best suited for information, is certainly the most entertaining that a traveller can adopt.

The office of governor of Nangasaki is filled alternately by two persons, who relieve each other at the expiration of every term of six months: but, during the stay of the Nadeshda in the port, both the governors continued in the exercise of their authority. They were both well inclined to the Russians, but cautious in suffering that feeling to appear; and they seemed bound to insincerity in various particulars, in obedience to the disposition of their court. It was said that every demand of the Russians, to which they acceded, was granted at their own risk: 'but (says the author) the anxious behaviour of one of the governors, when he really took upon himself to offer us a place for a walk, sufficiently demonstrated his confined authority.'

The narrator has given the following account, being the whole of the information which he was able to collect, concerning the trade carried on by the Chinese with Japan:

'Twelve ships are permitted to come to Nangasaky annually from Ningpo, (or, as the Japanese pronounce it, Simfo,) five of which arrive in June and sail in October, the other seven in December, and return in March or April. Their cargo consists chiefly of sugar, ivory, tin plates, lead, silk stuffs, and tea. That this last

article

icle is among the imports from China I did not indeed learn from
e interpreters; but upon our departure they gave us the choice
tween Chinese and Japanese tea. We chose Japanese, and found
much worse than the other; and I believe that what is said of the
cellence of the Japanese tea is very much exaggerated. A small
x full, which the governor presented to the ambassador shortly
er our arrival, and some that the officers of the embassy drank at
audience in the governor's house, were very inferior to the better
ds of Chinese tea. The Japanese only drink green, the Chi-
se on the contrary always black tea. The Chinese exports from
pan consist of copper, camphor, lacquered wares, umbrellas, but
rticularly the dye-fish, which is used as a medicine in China; be-
es these are a kind of sea plant, and large dried muscles, which
t, known in Japan by the name of *Awaby*, are among their pro-
ions, and are considered in China as a great delicacy.'

On the 22d of December, a courier arrived from Jeddo,
th an order for the Nadeshda to be taken into the inner har-
ur to be repaired. The presents intended for the Kubo and his
nisters had been landed, and M. Resanoff waited in expecta-
n of orders to proceed to court. The ship's hull, masts, and
ging, in the mean-time, underwent examination. Copper
s wanted for repairing the sheathing over her bottom; and,
the necessary quantity could not be readily furnished at
ngasaki, the governor made an offer to send to the city of
iaco for the supply: but this offer was declined, the am-
ssador taking on himself to order the copper on his journey
Jeddo. The Japanese at Nangasaki knew at this time that
e Russian embassy would not be permitted to proceed to
ddo, it having been announced to the governors that a noble-
n would be sent from court to receive the embassy and
return an answer: but they did not communicate this know-
e to the Russians, which perhaps they were not authorized
convey; and, taking advantage of the circumstance, they
re rejoiced to find themselves relieved from the trouble of
nding for the copper.

February 19. the ambassador received an official notice that
erson of very high rank, 'one who was permitted the ho-
ur to see his Japanese Majesty's feet, but never to exalt his
ards higher,' was on his way to Nangasaki, attended by
ht nobles, with full powers to treat with him. The inter-
eters did not exactly say that the ambassador would not
w have occasion to travel to Jeddo: but, in order that it
ight the more easily be inferred, they intimated that it was
e earnest wish of the Japanese government that the Russians
ould depart from Japan in the beginning of April.

'It was only, however, on the 12th March that Skeyseima, the
ief interpreter, acquainted the ambassador that he would not be
permitted

permitted to travel to Jeddo; and that the Japanese plenipotentiary would arrive in ten or fifteen days in Nangasaky, after which the ship must return to Kamtschatka, as soon as she could possibly be fitted for sea. The interpreter farther informed us, that we should not be allowed to purchase the least thing in Japan, but that the Emperor had given orders to supply the ship with all that was necessary, as well as with provisions for two months, free of any charge to us.'

On the arrival of the plenipotentiary, much warm contest took place in adjusting the ceremonials to be observed. It was at length concluded that the Russian ambassador should make to the Kubo's representative 'an European and not a Japanese compliment:' but consent could not be obtained for the ambassador to be allowed a chair; and he was obliged, at the audience, to sit on the floor, with his legs tucked under him. A first meeting passed in the exchange of compliments; and the second completely terminated the negotiation: the necessary documents being delivered into the hands of the ambassador, which contained an order that *no Russian ship should again come to Japan*. Should any Japanese hereafter be cast on any of the Russian coasts, it was desired that they should be delivered over to the Dutch, who would send them by the way of Batavia to Nangasaki. The presents, and even the letter from the Emperor of Russia, were all refused.

'The reasons assigned by the plenipotentiary for rejecting the presents were, that the Emperor of Japan would be obliged to make a present in return to the Emperor of Russia, and send an ambassador for this purpose to St. Petersburgh, and that it was contrary to the laws of the empire for any Japanese to quit his country.

'This then was the result of an embassy, which had raised such great expectations. We gained no new advantages, but even lost those we had possessed, namely, the written permission which Laxmann had procured for us to visit Nangasaky. All communication is now at an end between Japan and Russia.'

Captain Krusenstern was informed that, on this momentous occasion, the Kubo did not determine from his own authority, but that he had sent an ambassador to Miaco, to consult the Dairi; 'who, although he had no executive authority, is held in the greatest veneration by the Japanese on account of his religious character.'

The Russian ships carried from Europe five natives of Japan, who had been shipwrecked on the coast of Kamtschatka, and sent thence to Petersburgh: but, in being sent back to their native country, their case appears to have been extremely unfortunate, since it was doubtful whether they would ever be permitted to rejoin their families. One of these men, while the Russian ships lay at Nangasaki, made an attempt on his own life; occasioned, it was supposed, by despair at learning that some Japanese, who had been carried back to Japan by the ambassador Laxmann, in 1792, had been doomed to perpetual imprisonment, without being allowed the least intercourse with their friends or relations.

Of all the effects produced by European usurpation, the singular condition of the Japanese, in which they placed themselves nearly two centuries ago and have inflexibly continued since, is the most extraordinary, though not the most fatal. When the Europeans first discovered the route of the Asiatic seas, the Japanese were a great trading people, whose ships visited all parts of India; and their mariners were the most capable of any in that part of the world. The Portuguese, however, a nation not sufficiently powerful to accomplish any purpose by direct force, having employed religion as an instrument to subject and enslave the Japanese, the latter were induced, as much by feelings of indignation as by apprehensions of danger, to separate from the rest of mankind; to the injury of all, but most to their own prejudice, they being a nation of a magnanimous character, and as capable of improvement perhaps as any in existence: so that, if they had not imposed on themselves a state of stagnation, it is probable that they would have shared largely in the advancement which has so generally taken place in many parts of the world, within the period of their seclusion. — We must now attend to the sequel of the Nadeshda's navigation.

Having re-embarked the embassy, Captain Krusenstern sailed from Nangasaki on the 17th of April, not less willing to depart than the Japanese were to get rid of their visitors. It was known at Nangasaki that the Russians designed to sail northward, between Japan and the coast of Korea, and the intention appears to have given some uneasiness; endeavours being made by the governors of Nangasaki and by the interpreters to dissuade the Captain from that route: but they did not prevail. In the beginning of May, the Nadeshda was near the western entrance of the Strait of Sangaar, which separates Jesso from Niphon: but, without entering it, she passed on to the northward, and, about the middle of the month, sailed eastward through La Pérouse's Strait. The track of the Nadeshda afterward makes the circuit of Aniwa Bay, and of the Bay van Patientie, on the eastern coast of Sachalin.

M. de la Pérouse and Captain Krusenstern have not both entertained the same opinion respecting the merits of Captain de Vries, the commander of the Dutch ship Kastrikom, who discovered the coast in the year 1643; and Captain K. animadverts rather too strictly on the chart made in the voyage of the Kastrikom, which, considering the stormy weather which she encountered, and the state of navigation at that time, has a much nearer agreement with the charts of the modern discoveries than we could have expected. The interesting description given of the inhabitants of Jesso, in the account of the Kastrikom's voyage, extremely well accords with the observations of the Russians. Captain K. says;

'*Aino* is the proper name of the native of Jesso, and thus also the people of the south of Sachalin (or of Aniwa Bay) are called.—The Ainos are rather below the middle stature, of a dark nearly black complexion, with a thick bushy beard, and black rough hair hanging strait down.—The women are sufficiently ugly.—However, I must do them the justice to say that they are modest in the highest degree.—The characteristic quality of an Aino is goodness of heart, which is expressed in the strongest manner in his countenance; and so far as we were enabled to observe their actions, they fully answered this expression. Their looks evince something simple but noble.'

The Japanese had establishments in the Bay of Aniwa: but the Russians found the inhabitants, both Japanese and Ainos, not in the least unwilling to have intercourse with them, though they were under great apprehension of its being noticed by the Government-officers. Vessels came here from different parts of Japan; and Captain Krusenstern went on board one which had arrived from Osacca with a cargo of salt and rice, and was to return with a cargo of salted and dried fish.—The author speaks of the ease with which the Russians could take possession of the country about Aniwa Bay; and he deems it probable that such an event as the establishment of a Russian colony in the Sachalin is at no great distance. He has not, indeed, made this conjecture without reasonable foundation, considering the constant and not slow progress of Russian usurpation over the eastern and north-eastern parts of Asia, which has for such a length of time been unremittingly advancing. His argument, however, in defence of such an appropriation, we cannot approve. Bad example must never be quoted as a precedent in justification of wickedness. He adds, however, with candour, 'I honestly confess my doubts whether the Ainos, the original natives, would gain by such a change of masters, for they appeared to me to be treated with great humanity by the Japanese.'

When he had traced the eastern coast of Sachalin from La Pérouse's Strait to Cape Patientie, Captain K. sailed for Kamtschatka, passing between the Kurile islands, and arrived in the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul on the 5th of June (1805). His Excellency M. Resanoff was landed here, and Captain Krusenstern intended to have immediately put to sea again: but discontents, which had appeared among the natives of Kamtschatka, occasioned by the extortions of some Russian merchants, made it necessary for the Nadeshda to remain at St. Peter and St. Paul till the end of the month. On July the 5th, the Captain sailed again for Sachalin, and completed his examination of the east coast.

The inhabitants of the north end of Sachalin were found to be a different people from the Ainos. In a village there, every man among the inhabitants appeared armed with a dagger; and the chiefs had sabres, and wore coloured silk dresses. These people were supposed to be Tartars. The north end of Sacharin is recommended by the author as a commodious situation for a Russian colony.

Though the Voyages of La Pérouse and Captain Broughton ascertained the geography of the greater part of Sachalin, doubts remained whether Sachalin be a peninsula joined to the continent, or an island; yet it seems to have been satisfactorily determined that, if it be a separate land, it has no navigable channel through which ships can pass between it and the continent. Captain K. was anxious to settle this point in geography, and also to make a full discovery of the entrance of the river Amur. La Pérouse and Broughton had made their examinations from the southward, advancing between Sachalin and the coast of Tartary, in a sea or arm of the sea now intitled in the charts *the Gulf of Tartary*. Captain Krusenstern would have had to attempt the discovery from the north part of Sachalin; and, by exploring southward between Sachalin and Tartary, to have joined his track to those of La Pérouse and Broughton, or to have ascertained the obstructions more exactly than they are now known: but from aiming at the accomplishment of this plan, he was deterred by directions given to him at Kamtschatka.

'Gladly,' he says, 'as I would have continued our discovery in the channel, and along the whole coast of Tartary, even from the river Amur o the Russian frontiers, by which means the geography of this part of Asia would have been greatly benefited, I did not dare to undertake t. Upon our last departure from Kamtschatka, I had been most particularly warned by no means to approach that part of the coast of Tartary which belongs to the Chinese, that I might not occasion any suspicion in the minds of this jealous and timid government, and hereby lead to a rupture that would be immediately followed by the suspension of the trade with Kiachta, so extremely advantageous to he Russians.'

The opportunity then possessed for prosecuting these discoveries is said to have been as favourable as the writer could wish: but the caution enjoined on him might not be neglected. In order to reconnoitre, however, where he was restrained from making full discovery, he proceeded from the north part of Sachalin to the southward, between it and Tartary, 20 leagues. He there found that the land of Sachalin approached within two leagues of the land of Tartary, at two capes which he named, after two of his lieutenants, Cape Romberg and Cape Golowatscheff.

'This then,' he says, 'seemed to be the channel leading to the mouth of the Amur, and to this I now bent my course: we were at the most five miles from its centre, and our soundings had diminished to six fathoms; and not thinking it safe to venture farther with the ship, I sent Lieutenant Romberg with orders first to row towards the point of Sachalin, until he came into three fathoms water, and then directly to the cape of Tartary, sounding across the whole width of the channel. At six in the evening he returned upon my firing signal guns, as we had entirely lost sight of him for two hours. He informed me that the rapidity of the current from the southward had rendered the advance very laborious, and he therefore could not have proceeded till within three fathoms, and have had still time left to sound in the channel. He had gone, however, in a direct line towards the point of Sachalin, until he got into four fathoms water, where he calculated upon being about midway between the ship and the land, and two miles and a half from both. He then rowed over towards the coast of Tartary, finding the soundings at first the same, but gradually decreasing to three fathoms and a half. At this moment the signal was made, and he returned: he brought with him a pailful of water, which he had dipped exactly in the middle of the channel, at the farthest point to which he had proceeded. It was perfectly sweet, and only one grain heavier than what we had shipped at the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, and precisely of the same specific gravity as the fresh water from Nangasaky; the water which was drawn up alongside the ship being of the same weight, and perfectly fit to drink. During our stay at the mouth of this channel, the current ran with great rapidity from the south and S.S.E., and I had every reason to believe we were very near the mouth of the Amur, which was probably at no great distance from the promontory on the coast of Tartary.'

We venture to give our opinion, judging from the strength of the stream between the Capes Romberg and Golowatscheff, and from the freshness of the water in a depth sufficient for a ship to anchor, that it is extremely probable, indeed next to certainty, that these two capes form the mouth of a great river,—in fact, of the Amur. We think, also, that it may be admitted as substantiated that the Sachalin is not a separate land from the continent. This is the most important part of the Nadeshda's navigation, with respect to geography.—From the coast of Sachalin, Captain Krusenstern returned to Kamtschatka, where he arrived at the end of August, 1805.

Many particulars of the voyage we must now omit to notice, for want of room. We just mention the escape of seven Japanese sailors from Kamtschatka, who had been shipwrecked on the coast, (related in chap. 7th of the iid vol.) to remark it as an instance of the courage and ability of the people of Japan. Captain K. has devoted a chapter to a description of the present state of Kamtschatka, to which we have before paid sufficient attention. — On the 9th of October 1805, he set sail from the Bay of Awatchka, in order to return to Europe by the way of China. He chose a track that appeared most proper for the verification of some islands which are laid down in the early charts, but he had not the satisfaction of finding any land till he came to the *South* and *Sulphur Islands*, which were seen in the last voyage of Captain Cook.

We must refrain from entering into detail respecting the transactions of the navigators with the Chinese, and the author's account of the political disorders of China, of the slow progress of the attempts to propagate Christianity in that empire, of the mode of trading in the interior, &c. &c.: but we must not omit to report that they effected their *commercial* purposes by disposing of their furs and skins, and taking on board cargoes of tea, &c. These objects, however, were not accomplished without some difficulty, and the aid of the English merchants at Macao; and, on reaching Petersburgh, Capt. K. received a letter informing him that, only 24 hours after he left Whampoa, a very positive order arrived from Pekin to detain the ships.

At Macao, the Nadeshda had been re-joined by her former consort the Neva, with a rich cargo of furs, from the Aleutic islands; and they sailed together in company for Europe: in the passage, they were again separated, but both arrived at home in safety. The Nadeshda anchored at Cronstadt, August the 19th, 1806, having been absent 3 years and 12 days, in all which time she lost but one of her crew, the ambassador's cook, who was in a decline when he embarked. The Neva had been equally fortunate.

Having given so ample an account of this first Russian circumnavigation, which is creditable to that nation as being planned for useful purposes, and honourable to its conductor as having been executed with every attention to science that was compatible with his instructions, we shall now add a few remarks directed more especially to the publication. The original in the Russian language is handsomely printed, without any approach to the unreasonable magnificence of which some late voyagers have given the public much reason to complain, and the charts are engraved with a very satisfactory clearness:

but of the style we judge only by the translation before us, which, in the general course of the narrative, where science is not concerned, we find to be easy and natural. We cannot now be the first to notice the inaccuracies in Mr. Hoppner's translation of the geographical and nautical details of the voyage: a letter having been inserted in "The Naval Chronicle" by Captain Krusenstern himself, in which he complains of the defects of the English version in these particulars. He observes: "the first thing that will strike a seaman on perusing it is, that it has been translated by one totally ignorant of nautical science; for there is hardly a single scientific or technical term that has not been disfigured in the translation to such a degree, that frequently the meaning cannot even be guessed at." This charge is supported by the evidence of a long string of quotations from the translation. We should ourselves, in the course of the preceding strictures, have remarked on many instances of nautical mistakes: but we deferred our notice of them to the conclusion, in preference to interrupting a narrative or a discussion in which we felt interest; and we now refer to Capt. K.'s letter, above mentioned, for specific examples of error.

It is certainly requisite to the translation of a scientific work, if designed for publication, that the translator should possess some skill in the science treated. The translator of mathematical demonstrations should have attained some proficiency in mathematics; and a medical work translated without some professional knowlege would be dangerous. The same may be said of the translation of nautical remarks and pilotage. If unconscious error speak in the tone of confident knowlege, as in the following passage, 'this convinced us that there must be a strong current to the north, which was confirmed by our observations the next day; for by our reckoning we ought to have been thirty-five miles more northward,'—— how may it not perplex or mislead? No care or revision can prevent a translator from falling into such mistakes, if he be uninformed in the nature of his subject.

Another fault in the present volume is the neglect to render the margin useful. In the Russian original, every page gives information of the date; and the want of it has made the translation provokingly troublesome. The chart, also, is too defective to escape censure. It is professed to be a reduced copy of the original: (be it noticed that the charts in the atlas to the Russian edition are drawn with great correctness:) but the first view of this reduced copy will immediately inform any person, who is even the least instructed in geography, that the distances between the parallels of latitude are out of all order or proportion.

In conclusion, we cannot but agree in opinion with Captain Krusenstern; who advises that, when a person who is unacquainted with maritime concerns undertakes to translate or edit a voyage, he should submit his performance to the inspection of some professional man: which, he observes, in England can by no means be a matter of difficulty.

At a future opportunity, we shall give an account of the observations made in this voyage by Dr. Langsdorff, one of the naturalists who accompanied the expedition, which have been separately published.

Art. VI. *Gustavus Vasa,* and other Poems. By W. S. Walker. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

It gives us real satisfaction to perceive, from the unusually magnificent list of subscribers to this work, that its young author may apparently entertain hopes founded on a basis far more solid than his poetry. His preface is sensible and well written. He informs us that he has attained only his seventeenth year, but he claims no indulgence for his tender age; he seems to concede that a bad poem admits of no excuse; and he is desirous to try himself on the touch-stone of public opinion, and thus to decide whether he shall become professionally a poet, or say, "*hic versus et cætera ludicra pono.*"

> 'He is sensible, that if he delayed till time had matured his judgment, and reflection perfected his ideas, the "*scribendi cacoëthes,*" perhaps an unfortunate inclination, would take a firm and unalterable possession of his mind. He is therefore determined to try the public opinion; that he may be enabled either to pursue his poetical studies under their encouragement, or to desist in time from an useless employment. This volume is not intended to challenge approbation, but to be the precursor of something which may challenge it in future: it is not an attempt to gain the prize, but a specimen of his powers, which may entitle him to the honour of standing candidate for that prize. The reader will here find the genuine effusions of a youthful fancy, free, yet not uncontrolled; a collection of pieces, exempt from negligence and inaccuracy, though not from the usual and inevitable faults of early compositions. To offer less than this would be arrogant, and to require more than this would be unreasonable.'

From a young man thus seriously disposed to become acquainted with his own powers, and to practise on himself no delusion, we should deem it unpardonable to withhold the information that he seeks, and is, we hope, prepared to receive. With sentiments, therefore, not less friendly to him than those which influenced the host of honourable persons whose assistance enabled him to become publicly an author, we would advise him to desist from poetical attempts, ere the inclination become strengthened into habit, and maturity of years shall remove the only trifling apology which can be offered for failure. Had such a work as this appeared a century ago from a very youthful pen, it might have been hailed as the harbinger of better things. The difficulties presented by metre, manner, harmony, and cadence, before Pope rendered them easy and familiar, if encountered with tolerable success, would have attracted the consideration and almost the wonder of those who were unacquainted with the mystery: but in these days of universal authorship, the possessors of the arcana are so numerous that wonder is reduced to indifference. So rapidly, indeeed, does the list of metrical writers increase, that, in the next book of synonyms, we expect to see that of *poet* used indifferently for *man*; and, as in the time of Horace it was usual to say, "There goes a poet," in this our time it will be said, to mark some extraordinary person, "There goes a man who has not written verses."

Gustavus Vasa, we are told by Mr. Walker, was first planned (the reader will smile) at eleven years of age. He then informs us of the numerous faults and extravagances which his understanding, improved by the culture of two years in advance of that age, enabled him to detect; of his destroying the manuscript, of recommencing it, and of reducing it to its present form. We venture to predict that his judgment at thirteen years of age did not more duly appreciate the effusions of his eleventh year, than his wisdom of twenty-two will condemn the rashness of seventeen. Indeed this young man is a versifier, but not a poet. Let him not imagine that we censure his faults: for both his faults and his beauties are too few. The whole is evenly, smoothly, and unalterably vapid. It is all correctly wrong. The rule and the compass, the line and the plummet, with every other instrument for measurement and proportion, are discernible in every part. It is all reason, all plan, all arrangement; and its greatest praise must be, in general, that negative eulogy, the absence of fault. It manifests no wildness, no enthusiasm, none of the "*dulcia vitia*" of youth which excite hopes from the compositions that they sully. For instance, let us take the matter of the argument to book the first:

> 'State of Sweden at the commencement of the Poem—A Council—Trollio—Bernheim—Ernestus—Christiern proposes the reduction of Dalecarlia—Ernestus opposes him, is committed to prison—Christiern takes his measures to oppose a rebellion just arisen in Denmark.'

At this council, the characters of the worthies Trollio, Bernheim, and Ernestus, are given at length, in verses faultless and uninteresting as the following:

> ‘ First of their order, as in rank and fame
> Superior, Upsal's haughty prelate came;
> Erect in priestly pride, he stalk'd along,
> And tower'd supreme o'er all the princely throng.
> A soul congenial, and a mind replete
> With ready artifice and bold deceit,
> To suit a tyrant's ends, however base,
> In Christiern's friendship had secured his place.
> His were the senator's and courtier's parts,
> And all the statesman's magazine of arts;
> His, each expedient, each all-powerful wile,
> To thwart a foe, or win a monarch's smile.’

Again,

> ‘ But Providence, whose undiscover'd plan,
> Lies deeper than the wiliest schemes of man,
> Can bare the sly designer's latent guilt,
> And crush to dust the structures he has built;
> Can disappoint the subtle tyrant's spite,
> And stem the billows of his stormy might;
> Confound a Trollio's skill, a Christiern's power,
> And blast presumption in its haughtiest hour.
> So Christiern found — and Trollio found it true,
> (Unwelcome truth, to his experience new!)
> That he, who trusts in guilty friendship, binds
> His fortune to a cloud, that shifts with veering winds.’

The other portraits are painted in the same manner, and eir speeches are somewhat faithfully imitated from those of int Stephen's Chapel. The second book then opens with e eternal and sempiternal soliloquies of Ernestus and Har-ar in prison. Mr. Walker could not resist an address to eep: which, since the summary praise bestowed on it by ncho Pança, has become one of the most dangerous of all bjects; and we have observed that few young persons, or ies, can prevail on themselves to pass this topic in silence.

Perhaps, the transition from the scene around Mora to ustavus Vasa, who is represented as reclining under a tree near e house of his friend the pastor, and retracing former events his mind, is one of the most favourable specimens of the thor's equable powers. It occurs in book the third:

> ‘ 'Twas now the time, when sober evening sheds
> Her dusky mantle o'er the grassy meads:
> Nor yet the pale stars trembled thro' the trees,
> Nor sparkling quiver'd on the inconstant seas;
> Nor yet the moon illumed the solemn scene:
> The fields were silent, and the heavens serene.
> The sheep had sought the fold; nor yet arose
> Night's listless bird from her dull day's repose.
> When in a vale with shadowy firs replete,
> Whose broad boughs rustled thro' the dark retreat,

Beneath a pine that sunk to slow decay,
Unseen, Gustavus pass'd the hours away.
From earliest morn, ere day's third glass was run,
The chief had mused, nor mark'd the rising sun:
And the retiring day appear'd as just begun.
Each flattering argument his mind revolved,
Each gleam of patriot hope yet undissolved,
Traced to its dubious source each meteor-light,
'Till the last spark went out, and all was night.
Convinced at length, he spoke; the woods around
With solemn awe return'd the mournful sound;
And souls of patriots listen'd from on high,
Uncertain yet of Sweden's destiny.

'" Yes, thou must fall! oh once o'er earth renown'd,
Queen of the North, with choicest blessings crown'd,
While martial glory waited on thy voice,
And wealth and power seem'd rivals for thy choice!
Ye fond survivors of a ruined state,
Here quit, at length, your hopes of happier fate,
And view your country's fix'd unalterable date!
You were not made to fear a tyrant's frown,
To gild with tributary wealth his crown,
To welcome some deputed robber's sway,
And watch his wavering will from day to day:
No — once o'erwhelm'd beneath a tyrant's blow,
Each following age will bring increase of woe,
And every sigh, that loads the Swedish air,
Will fly the herald of a patriot's care!'

To this poem, succeed imitations of Mr. Walter Scott; and, if compared with some of the productions of that author, they tread far more closely on the originals than Mr. Scott would desire. The translation from the thirteenth Iliad has real merit; and, if Mr. Walker should persist in his inclination to publish, we strongly advise him to steer by the ideas of great and acknowleged poets. The metre in which his version is written is admirably adapted to a fragment, or short pieces; and with compositions that demand a longer breath, we wish him not again to commit himself.

The volume concludes with some Latin poems, which, the writer informs us, 'have been honoured by the approbation of different masters at Eton.' As specimens of Latinity, they are not discreditable to the tutor and the pupil: but we can by no means persuade ourselves that the world stood in need of any modern and equivocal Latin, in addition to that of which it is at present possessed. Metrical exercises in Latin are useful and even necessary for the attainment of the prosody and quantity of that language: but the northern idioms are so dissonant from the Roman, that, with few exceptions, we have every

:ason to fear that our Latin is rather *a language of convention* ıan the Latin of antiquity. The secret died with the Romans ; old, and after a long night was imparted at its revival almost xclusively to the poets of Italy. Vida, Sannazarius, Fracas-ırius, Flaminius, and Politian, wrote Latin, because the transi-on from the *lingua vulgare* to the *lingua antica* was easy, ıd, in point of idiom, almost imperceptible. In these writers, e perceive no constraint, no effort, no ambitious and crabbed nguage: they speak as the heirs and descendants of those ho formed the dynasty of Latin poesy,—as the legal possessors ; the soil, and sole proprietors of the venerable language.

.RT. VII. *An Inquiry into the Moral Tendency of Methodism and Evangelical Preaching.* Part the Second. By William Burns. 8vo. pp. 108. 4s. Johnson and Co. 1812.

VHAT person ever seriously and deliberately chose error for its own sake, or because it was error? All the dif-rent sects of religion mean to be right; and so rooted are ıey in the conviction of the truth of their own tenets, that ıe best reasoner will find it extremely difficult to persuade ıem that they are wrong. In reviewing the first part of [r. Burns's Inquiry, (see M. R., Vol. lxvi., N. S., p. 176.) as ell as the "Hints" of "a Barrister," we have freely delivered ır opinion of the nature and operation of Methodism; most robably, however, without inducing one Methodist to see ith our eyes. Supposing us to be right and the Evangelicals ı be wrong, it is surely of some importance to inquire what the cause of the strong delusion which so completely in-:lopes their minds, or to what we must attribute their mis-ken views of the Gospel of Christ? We can truly say that e have met with no writer who more clearly explains these ıints than Mr. Burns; whose second part is as well composed his first, and has the merit of that nice discrimination hich is so absolutely necessary in all discussions of religious nets.

From the want either of accurate definition or of clear ap-ehension, from the mixture of error with truth, and from attention in separating the former from the latter, many per-ıns, with the best intentions, labour under the strongest self-:ception, and are zealous for false doctrine, under the notion at it is consonant with the word of God. *The Calvinistic ctrine of depravity*, which is the subject of the first ıapter, is shewn by Mr. Burns to originate in jumbling to-ther matters of theory and of fact; or the *acknowledged ıilty* of human nature, and the supposition of its *total* moral

inca-

incapacity. A verdict is thus passed against human nature, on a mere survey of its worst side, while no notice is taken of the good in its composition: though the actual state and character of our nature ought to be considered, and the good as well as the bad be put into the scale. Now, with all our evil propensities and vicious pursuits,

> ' There is a natural love of justice and of truth, in our minds, which is never extinguished, unless by an education positively bad, or acquired habits of atrocious vice. There is a susceptibility of generous impressions and noble resolutions, frail and fleeting, perhaps, if not instantly furnished with objects and means of gratification, but not more so than some of the violent passions, which also subside and evaporate, if not immediately supplied with opportunities of action. There are natural tempers, also, of the most amiable and benevolent kind, which preserve a steady and happy influence over some people all their lives, and make them a blessing to themselves and all around them.
>
> ' It is of no consequence to the present argument, what opinion we may have concerning the comparative value of such natural qualities, or concerning their influence on our final salvation. It is *the fact of their existence* alone, with which we have to do; and this being admitted, (for who can deny it?) the assertion " that our nature is corrupted to the very core, and has no virtuous tendencies in it," is false.'

We are persuaded that the doctrine of the total depravity of human nature is deemed, by many persons, a very comfortable mode of reconciling vice to their own consciences as a fault more or less unavoidable; especially since this degrading or exonerating doctrine is always coupled with another, which opens a fund whence the bankrupt-moralist pays full twenty shillings in the pound for every bill presented against him by Divine justice. God cannot expect *any great matters* from creatures depraved even *to the very core:* but, if he should, the Saviour becomes an all-sufficient substitute. Thus the issue is secured at all events, and they may safely speak of their *own righteousness as filthy rags.* Yet a strange inconsistency appears in the low estimate of the powers of the creature, and in the high demands of the Creator. Though man, they tell us, can do nothing, the Almighty requires every thing from him, and regards every sin as including in it the sentence of eternal damnation. How is this made out? Nothing is so easy. Behold the demonstration: " *As God is an infinite Being, every offence against him deserves an infinite punishment.*" Repeatedly have we heard this argument waged and admitted, yet it is impossible to produce an instance of more inebriated logic:

> ' This,' says Mr. B., ' is one of those shreds of ancient scholastic divinity, which the Calvinists have preserved with pious care as a pre-

a precious relic. It is, also, one of the most wretched sophisms that ever enslaved the mind of man, or thrilled his heart with horror. It would be just as much to the purpose to say, that God being an invisible Being, every offence against him required an *invisible* punishment.

'What, in the name of common sense, have such attributes to do with the adjustment of rewards and punishments, in his moral government of the world? Is it not his wisdom, his justice, and his mercy alone, that have to do with the business? If we will, therefore, draw inferences from the abstract character of the Deity respecting the rules of his government, we ought to reason thus: God is just, therefore the Judge of all the earth will inflict none but just and equitable punishments.'

On the Divine character respecting the exercise of justice and mercy, some remarks are offered in the 2d chapter, which Calvinists ought not to slight; because in this particular their representation of the Deity tends to destroy our idea of him as a Being intitled to our purest love and highest reverence. Surely, with such an impression on our minds, we shall be excused if we transcribe Mr. B.'s argumentations with the Methodists on this subject:

'The dictates of nature, concerning the moral dispositions of the Deity, are as plain and decisive as the proofs which are given us of his power and godhead. He that made the eye, does he not see? He that formed the ear, shall he not hear? This is unanswerable reasoning. Not less so is the following. He that taught us to respect justice and humanity, is he not just and humane? He that approves the exercise of mercy, is he not merciful and kind? Justice in God must, therefore, be the same thing as justice among men.

'Now we feel no respect for that species of justice (if it can be so called), which consists *merely* in the rigorous punishment of offences; and we abuse the meaning of words, when we give that respectable name to a disposition which disregards the cries and tears of penitence; which admits of no apology for the weaknesses and infirmities of nature; for the strength of passion, and the surprise of temptation.

'Justice does not consist in applying the severest penalties of law, without discrimination; on the contrary, we would not hesitate to call that judge or that law unjust, among men, which made no allowance for the various circumstances which affect the criminality of the same overt act.

'Let us apply these principles to the Divine government, and see if they do not confute those absurd notions of justice to which we have alluded. Every thing in the circumstances of mankind calls for indulgence and lenity on the part of their Judge. Born with strong passions, surrounded with powerful temptations, prone to err in judgment, frequently spoiled by education, and corrupted by example; it is perfectly impossible for man wholly to avoid offences. From a creature thus circumstanced, it would be the height of *injustice* to exact a rigorous and perfect obedience to such a law as the Calvinists describe. This would be literally to reap where he had not sown, and to gather where he had not strewed: it would be worse than the cruelty of the Egyptians, when they compelled the Israelites to make brick without the necessary materials. If an earthly governor were to act this way towards his subjects, we would call it insulting tyranny. Is it a light matter, then, to accuse the God of heaven of such cruelty? to represent the Father of mercies as a demon of despotism?'

What reply worth hearing can a Calvinist return to this reasoning?

In the third chapter, Mr. Burns examines the ideas of the Evangelicals respecting the principles and motives of true virtue; and, by detecting the latent error which vitiates their representations and reasonings, he places in a clear light the fallacies by which they are led astray. He admits the importance of *faith* and the *glory of God* as motives to action, but he bids us consider what these terms imply:

'All their ideas about faith and the glory of God proceed upon the supposition, that Methodism and Christianity are the same things. Once grant them this, or allow them to assume it without contradiction, and they may go on very smoothly to prove from Scripture, that without the principle of faith, and the motives of pleasing and honouring God, there can be no perfect virtue. This is very true, in the proper and original sense of the terms; but all the while they are using the language of Scripture, they apply it, in their own minds, to nothing but the principles and the motives of Methodism. This is a mode of viewing the subject, on their part, just equivalent to begging the question, and needs to be opposed, therefore, simply by denying their definitions; or, which is the same thing, objecting to the meaning which they attach to the terms.'

It is very true,

'That all virtue is comparatively weak and deficient which does not spring from principle, and receive its direction from it.' — 'But the Methodists err in rating the value of religious principle, considered merely by itself, too high; especially when they confine their ideas of it to a belief of their own peculiar dogmas, and imagine it to be of such value in the sight of heaven as to sanctify, or at least excuse, almost every defect of character, and the flagrant violations of social order. They do not consider, that the religious principle is capable of being so perverted that, instead of impelling its subject to good, it impels him to evil; that when "the light which is in a man is darkness, it is the greatest of all darkness."'

For a rational and moral agent to aim at living to *the glory of God* is an endeavour supremely commendable: but the meaning of so sublime an expression should be narrowly investigated; since, otherwise, under the notion of rendering service to God, we may rush into all the excesses of superstition and persecution, or mistake the outward acts of religion (like the Pharisees of old) for religion itself. As to the Calvinists of modern times,

> 'They,' observes Mr. B., 'fix their attention almost entirely on formal acts of devotion and worship, as the principal means of glorifying God: they imagine that a direct and visible reference to him in all our ways should guide our manners; and that we should be anxious, above all things, to pay due attention to the etiquette of certain alleged forms of homage.
>
> 'In saying this, I would not be understood as insinuating any thing in the smallest degree disrespectful of social or regular worship. I only mean to say at present, that formal worship is but one way of glorifying God. There are other ways by which the glory of God is equally promoted: for instance, the practice of the social and relative duties of life promotes the great scheme of Providence which is carrying on in the world, as effectually as any other kind of virtues, and, consequently, has a tendency to exhibit the wisdom and the benevolence of its Author.
>
> 'If we consider the whole system of this world, in all its complicated combinations of moral, intellectual, and physical powers, we may compare it to a piece of exquisite machinery, all the movements of which ultimately tend to produce some grand effect, in which we discover the design of the artist.'

A distinct chapter is assigned to the *debasement*, or as the author terms it, the 'spurious humility' of the Methodists; and here he shews the absurdity, as the "Barrister" and others have done, of applying those expressions of the Apostle Paul, in which he speaks with just reprobation of himself as having been a persecutor, and one who consented to the death of the proto-martyr Stephen, to the case of pious Christians who cannot be charged with so gross a crime. No man who had a just estimate of his character, and who knew that, however sinful he had been, he had avoided the commission of the most atrocious offences, could, without lying to God, confess himself to be *the vilest of sinners.*

We pass over the last two chapters, 'on the Censoriousness of the Evangelicals,' and 'on the gloomy and superstitious Spirit of Calvinism,' because we wish to have the examination of the nature of Methodism conducted without reflections on the character of its professors. *Mild* are more efficacious than *rough* arguments; and if we are seriously sollicitous to produce conviction in their minds, we must be on our guard against affording them ground either of disgust or offence. As Mr. Burns means to proceed in his Inquiry, we advise him to attack the doctrines, but to spare the sect as much as he can.—When we took up our pen, we intended to have done little more than to have referred the reader to the first part, and to have briefly reported the contents of that which is now before us: but the prevalence and wide diffusion of the errors, which this inquirer combats, have induced us to depart from our original purpose. Notwithstanding all his imperfections, *Man* is the noblest animal with which we are acquainted; he is but "a little lower than the angels;" and his moral as well as intellectual capacities are very great.

Art. VIII. *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, published by the Medical and Chirurgical Society of London. Vol. III. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE short time which elapsed between the publication of the second volume of these Transactions, and the appearance of a third, must be gratifying to the members of the profession, as denoting the continued and even increased exertions of a society which appears, from its constitution and management, to be so well adapted to the improvement of medical science. We cannot but hope that the extensive basis, on which it is founded, will give it a more permanent existence than some of its predecessors have enjoyed; which, whatever merits they may have possessed, depended principally on the talents of two or three individuals, and therefore expired with their original projectors.

According to our custom on former occasions, we shall give a brief account of the different papers which compose this volume. The first is by Sir Gilbert Blane, intitled '*Facts and Observations respecting intermittent Fevers and the Exhalations which occasion them*,' consisting principally of his experience of the disease during his professional visit to Walcheren in 1809. The account is in all respects valuable, and clearly establishes many important points concerning the fatal epidemic which attended the Flushing expedition. Sir Gilbert shews that the disease originated entirely from the marsh effluvia, which had successively affected all the troops who had been stationed in that province, and that typhus and dysentery did not make their appearance until a subsequent period. The circumstances mentioned respecting the nature of the effluvium, its mode of producing disease, the symptoms which appeared, their progress and termination, are highly deserving of attention. The rapidity with which the fever invaded those who were liable to its influence rendered the treatment extremely difficult, and seemed to give no time for the employment of those remedies which are found sufficient to remove intermittents in this country. Copious purging was indeed the only general plan which could be adopted.—Sir Gilbert Blane's

's observations were found to accord very accurately with
of the French General Monnet, who had resided for some
at Flushing, and seems to have been a man of good sense
formation; and we must also remark that the facts, con-
with the Walcheren fever, strongly sanction the opinions
ained by Dr. Bancroft jun. in his elaborate work on Yellow
. — The weekly and monthly returns, inserted by Sir
rt, are curious documents relative to the numbers of sick
deaths among the British troops employed in this ill-
expedition.

. Chevalier details a case of *Ovarian Dropsy*, which was
kable for immense bulk; the abdomen of the patient
measured 63½ inches in circumference, and contained
t 17 gallons of fluid. The only evil experienced from it
he great inconvenience arising from the excessive weight
she had to carry, and its removal was attempted by gra-
drawing off the water. Inflammation of the sac was,
ver, brought on, and death followed.

next paper contains the history of a *difficult Parturition*, by
Ierriman, which may be considered as a sequel to those of
ark in the last volume. A woman fell in labour with twins,
rth of which was obstructed by a tumour similar to those
vere formerly described; one of them was delivered by
g the head opened, and the other by the efforts of nature:
he mother died shortly afterward, of peritonitis. Dr.
iman admits that all tumours which contain a fluid should
acuated according to Mr. Park's plan; and he proceeds
uire what steps should be taken when the tumour con-
a solid substance, which is sometimes known to be the
he then advises the removal of it by excision.

. Parkinson gives a short notice of a *Case of diseased
dix Vermiformis*; in which the part was found to be ulce-
, had discharged its contents in the cavity of the abdo-
and occasioned an inflammation of the neighbouring
a.

. Henry Earle relates the case of *diseased Testicle* in a child,
om several parts of the body were attacked with a complaint
fungus kind, which terminated fatally. The paper is ac-
anied by an appendix by Mr. Lawrence, who relates four
in which fungous tumours appeared in different parts of
ame subject, and, like the preceding, ended in death.

second paper by Mr. Chevalier describes *an improved Me-
f tying diseased Tonsils*. His improvement consists in the
of passing the ligature, and of securing it when placed.
ear-pointed hook, connected with a double ligature, is
d through the base of the tumour, which is then divided,
and

and one thread is tied about the upper, and the other about the under, part of the tonsil. For the mechanical method of securing the ligature, we must refer to the memoir.

Dr. Farre presents us with an interesting paper on *Cynanche Laryngea*, a variety of sore throat which has always been confounded with croup, but which appears to be sufficiently distinct from that disease. It commences by painful deglutition, and with the usual appearances of *cynanche tonsillaris;* the respiration, however, suddenly becomes extremely oppressed, and the voice nearly inaudible. Two cases are related, in the second of which Mr. Cooper performed the operation of bronchotomy: but, although it gave temporary relief to the patient's sufferings, the disease ended fatally. On dissection, it appeared in both cases that the complaint was seated in the pharynx and larynx, and had proved mortal by closing up the glottis. The œsophagus and trachea were comparatively little affected. Although, therefore, the disease may literally be called *cynanche pharyngea*, yet obvious reasons may be assigned for preferring the term employed by Dr. Farre.—In the latter part of the volume, the author offers some farther remarks on the subject in a second paper, in which he enters more at large on the distinction between *cynanche laryngea* and *cynanche trachealis;* the former consisting of an inflammation of the whole length of the trachea, and the latter being seated principally in the larynx.

Dr. Yelloly next furnishes a long *History of a Case of Anæsthesia*, many of the particulars of which are very curious. The disease consists of a loss of sensation in the upper and lower extremities, independently of paralysis; and we are informed that 'the hands up to the wrists, and the feet, half way up the leg, are perfectly insensible to any species of injury, as cutting, pinching, scratching, or burning.' This loss of sensation does not appear to have diminished the voluntary power over the affected limbs, nor was their contractility in any degree impaired.

Another paper from Mr. Chevalier gives an '*Account of a Case of Spontaneous Extravasation within the Theca Vertebralis, which soon terminated fatally.*'

In *Observations on Diabetes Insipidus*, by Dr. Bostock, of Liverpool, the author details what appears to be an unequivocal case of this rare disease, and gives a minute account of the analysis of the urine. He subjoins some pathological observations respecting the connection between *diabetes insipidus* and *diabetes mellitus*, and relates some facts to prove the gradual transition from the one species to the other.

Dr. Merriman's remarks on the propriety of inducing *premature Labour, in Women with distorted Pelvis*, are very judicious and valuable. It is much to be regretted that a practice, which seems so clearly necessary for the preservation of life, should have been regarded as immoral, and have been assailed with all the force of prejudice. Like many other points in medicine, it is a choice between two evils; and when its advantages and disadvantages have been fairly estimated, it may become not merely allowable, but an imperious duty, to perform the operation.

Dr. Bostock communicates a second paper, containing some *Experiments on the Bark of the Coccoloba Uvifera*, the object of which was to compare an extract procured from this bark with the kind usually employed. He finds that, although the substances are considerably similar, they differ in so many particulars as to prove that they are not obtained from the same plant.

Dr. Bree has met with another case of what he considers to be *Splenitis*; which, like the one related in the former volume, he subdued principally by a long and persevering course of purgatives.

The next paper is by Mr. Charles Bell, and contains an accurate *Account of the Muscles of the Ureters, and their Effects in the irritable States of the Bladder*; and we have afterward the *History of a Case in which a Calculus was voided from a Tumour in the Groin*, by Mr. Chevalier.

A very interesting communication next ensues, from Dr. Berzelius of Sweden, on *Animal Fluids*. The essay contains nearly 80 pages, embracing a very wide field of observation and experiment, and may be considered as a summary of all the author's multiplied researches on these subjects. He begins with an analysis of blood, each of the constituents of which are separately examined, and an account is given of the effect of different re-agents on them; he then proceeds to the different secretions, bile, saliva, mucus, serous fluids, and the humours of the eye; then some of the excretions, as the perspiration and the urine; and he concludes by an examination of the properties and constituents of milk. We should be unable to detail even a part of the numerous facts and opinions which are brought forwards in this paper. A long discussion occurs respecting the nature of the colouring matter of the blood, the quantity of iron which it contains, and the state in which it exists there; and the presence of the lactic acid is announced, as forming a frequent constituent of the serous fluids. The author coincides with Dr. Bostock in supposing that no gelatine s contained in the blood; and, in general, it may be observed hat his experiments agree very nearly with those of Drs. Marcet and Bostock, which have been related in the former volumes of these Transactions.

Another case is reported, by Mr. Langstaff, of *Fungus Hæmatodes*, or of one of those fungous affections which attacked various parts of the body, both internal and external, and at length produced death. Also, an interesting *History of a severe Affection of the Organs of Respiration, with the Appearances on Dissection, and Remarks*, by Dr. Wilson Philip, of Worcester; and a curious *Account of a new Mode of Treatment in chronic Rheumatism, and especially in Sciatica*, communicated by Dr. Marcet. The latter case is drawn up by the patient himself; who, after having suffered from his disorder during several years, and having found no permanent relief from any application, at length removed it by 'sweating in body-cloaths,' on the Newmarket plan.

Some Remarks on the Use of Nitrat of Silver, for the Detection of minute Portions of Arsenic, by Dr. Marcet. An objection to the accuracy of this test (which was proposed in a paper by Dr. Roget in the second volume of these Transactions) having been suggested, Dr. Marcet recommends a modification of the process, by which any doubts respecting it may be removed.

The volume concludes with a minutely related account of a *Case of remitting Ophthalmia*, which occurred to the author, Dr. Curry, and which was effectually relieved by a full dose of opium given previously to the exacerbation; — opium taken after the fit had commenced was of no service.

The brief account which we have given of the contents of this volume will enable our readers to form some judgment respecting its merit, and must, we think, have proved to them that its value is at least equal to that of its predecessors. We have, however, one charge to bring against the Society, viz. the extremely inaccurate manner in which the work is printed; some of the errors being of such a nature as materially to affect the sense of the passage, and to leave it doubtful what was the word intended by the writer.

ART. IX. *A Grammar of the English Language:* containing a complete Summary of its Rules, with an Elucidation of the general Principles of elegant and correct Diction, accompanied with Critical and explanatory Notes, Questions for Examination, and appropriate Exercises. By John Grant, A.M. 12mo. 6s. bound. Sherwood and Co. 1813.

GRAMMARS of the English language abound, and yet we have few that are good. That which Wallis of Oxford composed, and which Bowyer reprinted in 1765, is one of the best: but, being written in Latin, it is less adapted for the use of schools than for that of grown gentlemen. Wallis had taken the right course to understand English: he learned the Anglo-Saxon and the Low-Dutch, the first of which is a parental and the second a fraternal language to our own. By the analogy of other similar Gothic dialects, he could trace the structure of this, and knew the difference between an exception and a regular inflection: but many grammarians do not, and class as anomalous such plurals as *feet*, *teeth*, *geese*, *lice*, *mice*, which are remains of a Gothic rule.

About the year 1750, Farro, — about the year 1760, Fleming,—and about the year 1770, Greenwood,—was the popular grammarian: but in 1775 the Grammar of Bishop Lowth, like Aaron's rod, had swallowed up all its competitors. Three grammars have since excited considerable attention; that of Coote, published about 1790, which professes to adopt the discoveries of Horne Tooke; that of Lindley Murray, published about 1795, which imitates the method of Wallis; and that of Dr. Alexander Crombie, published about 1800, which displays metaphysical more than glossological learning. Murray's Grammar has been deservedly the most successful as a popular manual; and it is with this especially that the present author must expect a dangerous comparison.

Both these writers treat first of orthography: but Mr. Murray's analysis of the letters, and theory of the division of syllables, appear to us preferable to those of Mr. Grant. Both omit to treat of those words which are differently spelled by different authors; yet a most important province of the grammarian is to favour the prevalence of the better usage, where any opposition of authority exists. For instance: words derived from Latin supines are sometimes spelled by scholars with an *s*, but more generally with a *c*: such as *offense*, *expense*, *defense*; *offence*, *expence*, *defence*. Why do not the professed lawyers of language tell us the rule of court? The fact is that they correct their very grammars by the printer's dictionary, which they should qualify themselves to edit, and which they should criticize courageously.

Messrs. Murray and Grant both devote their second part, or chapter, to etymology; or the formation of words one from another. Mr. Murray reckons *nine*, while Mr. Grant makes *ten*, parts of speech; the participle being honoured by him with a separate and independent existence. Neither of these gentlemen appears to us to have determined from observation the number of the parts of speech, but each seems quietly to have copied some old list in some old Latin grammar. The parts of speech are not metaphysical categories, growing out of universal Grammar, or the theory of language in general; they are mere technical subdivisions, growing out of the structure of a parti-a particular language, which have for their object to class together words inflected by a similar rule of analogy. Hence a sweeping allotment of indeclinables is precisely the first best resource of the classifier. In languages of southern (or rather of Latin) origin, the parts of speech are more numerous than in languages of northern (or Gothic) origin. In English, why should we class under different heads the words *this*, *the*, *that?* If we call them articles, or particles, pronouns, or adnouns, they are still words of the same class; *the* indicating a middle situation between *this* and *that*; *this* indicating a more contiguous, and *that* a more remote situation than *the*. Of *the*, the old plural was *they*, which is now used only as a nominative to verbs. Mr. Grant makes (p. 25.) some good observations on the article, which he would term the *definitive*.

Another case of impropriety is the calling in an English grammar by the name *preposition*, which means *put before*, those separable inflective syllables, with which our verbs are frequently combined. *To stand by*, *to look over*, *to set on*, are instances of verbal composition, in which not a preposition, but an affix, is employed; yet, as we can say *a by-stander*, an *overlooker*, and *onset*, we ought not to include any idea of place, or position, in the definition of this class of words.

Under the head *prepositions*, (p. 105.) Mr. Grant takes no notice of our peculiar, and to foreigners difficult, management of the preposition. *To see through you* is to penetrate your intentions; *to see you through (a business)* is to help you out of a difficulty. *To go under* is to pass beneath; *to undergo* is to suffer. *To forego* is to go before; *to forgo* is to go without. *To stand under* is to stay beneath; *to understand* is to comprehend. *To overcast* is to grow gloomy; *to cast over* is to fling from on board of a ship, or over a wall, &c. *To take under protection* is to bestow shelter generally; *to undertake protection* is to promise it in case of need. *To take over* is to carry across; *to overtake* is to pursue so fast as to catch. *To do over* is to obtain an advantage; *to overdo* is to work excessively. *To come over* is to desert to the other side; *to overcome* is to vanquish. *To run out* is to quit the house; *to outrun* is to surpass in speed. *To stand with* is to be in alliance; *to withstand* is to be in hostility. *To draw with* is to assist in drawing; *to withdraw* is to go away. *To hold with* is to agree in sentiment; *to withhold* is to keep a thing out of reach. *To wear out* is to exhaust, or consume; *to outwear* is to last longer than something else. *To overthrow* is to pull down; *to throw over* is to fling across. An *offset* is the shoot of a pullulating plant; a *set-off* is an indemnity. *To burn out* is to extinguish; *to outburn* is to be brighter than another fire. *To swear for* is to support with an oath; *to forswear* is to commit perjury. To postpone a preposition in English totally alters its signification.

In the class of adjectives, we are surprized to see Mr. Grant giving countenance (p. 52.) to some equivocally correct comparatives. Thus, from the adjective *hind*, it is legitimate to form *hinder* and *hindest*, or to form *hindmore* and *hindmost*, which last have prevailed in writing, in order to avoid ocular equivocation: but it is not legitimate to combine both forms of inflection, and to say or to write *hindermost*.

At p. 80. a curious note occurs concerning the use of *shall* and *will*; from which it appears that the received version of the Bible is at variance with the Common-prayer-book in the use of these auxiliaries. Hence Dissenters, who read every Sunday in the Bible, so commonly differ from Churchmen, who read every Sunday in the Common-prayer-book, in the application of these defective verbs.

Mr. G. supplies at p. 90. a list of verbs commonly called irregular. Some of these are irregular only by contraction: such are the verbs of which the infinitives terminate with a *t*. From a natural difficulty in pronouncing rapidly the sound *ed* after the letter *t*, this termination has in conversation been habitually omitted; and the omission, which in comedies or novels, where the language of conversation is imitated, was a thing of course, has finally travelled into solemn oratory, and into literature for the closet. Such are the verbs *cast*, *cost*, *hit*, *hurt*, *knit*, *let*, *burst*, *must*, *rid*, *put*, *shed*, *shut*, *shred*, *set*, *spred*, &c. Many of these verbs might, with entire euphony, and without any violation of English analogy, receive at least a participial inflection. We might say *casten*, *hitten*, *shedden*, *shutten*, as Lowth recommends. — Other verbs called irregular ought rather to be classed as of the second conjugation; being inflected by a peculiar rule of analogy common to most of the Gothic dialects. Such are the verbs which form the past tense by changing the vowel of the present tense, and the participle in *en*: as *break*, *broke*, *broken*; *blow*, *blew*, *blown*; *chide*, *chid*, *chidden*; *bite*, *bit*, *bitten*; *behold*, *beheld*, *beholden*; *arise*, *arose*, *arisen*; *bind*, *bound*, *bounden*; *choose*, *chose*, *chosen*; *cleave*, *clave*, *cloven*; *grow*, *grew*, *grown*; *draw*, *drew*, *drawn*; *eat*, *ate*, *eaten*; *fall*, *fell*, *fallen*; *freeze*, *froze*, *frozen*; *get*, *got*, *gotten*; *hide*, *hid*, *hidden*; *hold*, *held*, *holden*; *know*, *knew*, *known*; *ride*, *rode*, *ridden*; *show*, *shew*, *shown*; *sink*, *sank*, *sunken*; *sit*, *sat*, *sitten*; *slide*, *slid*, *slidden*; *smite*, *smote*, *smitten*; *speak*, *spake*, *spoken*; *steal*, *stole*, *stolen*; *stride*, *strode*, *stridden*; *strow*, *strew*, *strown*; *swell*, *swoll*, *swollen*; *take*, *took*, *taken*; *thrive*, *throve*, *thriven*; *wear*, *wore*, *worn*; *write*, *wrote*, *written*; and several others. As these verbs are the completest in the

English language, distinguishing the past tense both from the present tense and from the past participle, no opportunity should be lost by the grammarian for pressing into this list those verbs which, if we may so say, are still hesitating whether they shall belong to it or not. Thus the verb *to strike* forms *struck* in the past sense, but is hesitating whether to form *stricken* in the participle. Though Shakspeare already uses the latter in speaking of "the *stricken* deer," yet "I have *struck*" is in most frequent use.

Among the conjunctions, Mr. Grant (p. 112.) places *either*, *both*, and *neither*; which many of our grammarians rank among the pronouns: so strangely indefinite are the subdivisions termed *parts of speech*. — The tenth chapter, on Derivation, has the merit of introducing a topic too little discussed in popular grammars.

At p. 169. the following rule is given: — 'substantives, or nouns and pronouns, signifying the same thing, agree in case; as "Cicero the orator," "I the king."' — That substantives placed in apposition agree in case may be a rule of Latin grammar, but it is not a law of the English language. We say, *His Majesty King George's soldiers*: not *His Majesty's King's George's soldiers*. The Englishman imagines all words connected by apposition to be hyphened together, and inflects them as a single word: but, when the phrase is too long to be so contemplated, the inflective syllable is attached to the main substantive, and those which are subordinate stand apart in the case absolute. *We staid at Lord Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country*: no one would write *the ornament's*.

The first Appendix treats of figures of speech, somewhat pedantically. It may be well to attach more of the theory of rhetoric than is commonly allotted to grammars of language; yet, we think, the department of grammatical tuition is so different in its character from that of oratorical composition, that we should have preferred the assignment of a distinct treatise to each.

Appendix ii. treats of style. On these topics, Blair and Campbell are not easily excelled, but may properly be abridged.

The third Appendix relates to punctuation; a topic which is essential to an English grammar. The vitious punctuation of the Psalms in the Common-prayer-book is deservedly blamed at p. 344. As the art of reading is acquired and preserved among the people of England in a great degree by means of their liturgic exercises, it is important that gross grammatical blunders should not be inculcated in them.

We extract the fifth chapter. Having treated of the comma, semicolon, colon, and period, Mr. Grant observes:

'There are four other marks, which influence the sense and the delivery, the Dash (—) the Note of Interrogation (?) the Note of Exclamation (!) and the Parenthesis ( ).

'*Of the Dash.* — The Dash is commonly used to denote abruptness; to shew that a significant pause is intended; or that there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment: thus, " Nothing, my Lord, or if—I know not what." (*Shakesp.*) " You have given the command to a person of illustrious birth, of antient family, of innumerable statues, but—of no experience." " He sometimes counsel takes — and sometimes snuff." It is used instead of the regular points, by rambling, incoherent, or ignorant writers.

'*Of Interrogation.* — The Note of Interrogation is put after a question; as " What shall we do?" If, in any matter of inquiry, the expression is not in the precise form of a question, this mark is not used; thus, " Your father inquired, when I should depart." But, if the expression is in the form of a question, it should, though introduced with an affirmation, be followed by this mark; thus, " And they asked him, Who art thou?" When exclamation, rather than interrogation, is intended, this mark should not be used; thus, " With what kindness does God vouchsafe to look upon us!" No question being intended, no answer is expected.

'*Of Exclamation or Admiration.* — The Note of Exclamation is put after expressions of sudden emotion; thus, " Alas! what will become of us!" Although exclamations be generally expressed, as just observed, in an interrogative form; yet, as no answer is expected or intended, they should not be followed by the mark of interrogation.

'Clauses which are terminated by these two last marks are sometimes followed by others, which are closely connected with them. This connection may be denoted by beginning the others with a small letter. When there is no such connection, we should begin with a capital; thus, " Wherefore is consciousness reposed in thee alone? and whence is it derived to thee?" — " Is he come? Are they arrived?" Both marks occasion an elevation of the voice, but are indeterminate with respect to the time of the pause. — Every sentence ends either with a period, a note of interrogation, or a note of exclamation.

'*Of the Parenthesis.* — The Parenthesis incloses something explanatory, but which does not necessarily affect the construction of the sentence; thus, " King James wrote a treatise (what could be more ridiculous!) on the *Heinous Sin of using Tobacco.*" This mark is often used when it is not necessary; thus, " Insomuch that (if it were possible) they shall deceive the elect." Two commas may here be substituted. When the intermediate clause is short, or coincides with the rest of the sentence, it needs not be used; thus, " The man, he replied, had never called." The parenthesis requires a small depression of the voice, (cases of Interrogation and Exclamation excepted;) and may contain any point which the sense would require, were it omitted. The comma, however, is seldom employed, its place being sufficiently supplied by the parenthetical characters.

'To conclude: — The primary object of punctuation, as already hinted, is to ascertain the grammatical construction, or the mutual relation of words, members, and sentences; and hence, in recitation, its influence in directing the intonation, pauses, and vocal inflexions, so that the hearer may have a distinct perception of the construction and meaning of each sentence, and a clear comprehension of the whole.'

In the fourth Appendix, Mr. G. discusses Prosody. This is an essential part of grammar properly so called, and is too often neglected; under this head, the author not unwisely treats much of orthoepy.

Mr. Grant's grammar deserves perusal by those who have studied the laws of the English language only in the concise elementary school-books: but perhaps it does not sufficiently keep in view a specific and single class of readers. Examples, and erroneous lessons for correction, and other exercises, abound in it; as if it were deliberately intended for the use of schools: yet, in other parts, learned words and critical refinements are lavished, as if the appeal were only to the literary and the philosophic. We should advise the author to separate his book into two distinct volumes; to treat popularly of English grammar merely in the first; and to reserve for the second those chapters on Derivation, Synonymy, Style, Harmony, and Expression, which belong rather to a grammar of rhetoric than to a grammar of language.

In p. 323. and 324. the author declares with great warmth his admiration of the style of Addison and Beattie. The former certainly has been a very fashionable writer, and copied with fidelity and grace the idiom in use among the genteel world: but that which was formerly the conversation of the young lady has now descended to the lady's maid; and the tone of opinion and expression, of topic and phraseology, which pervades the Spectator, has insensibly faded into an antiquated sort of elegance. In order to keep the name and works of Addison current in the reading world, it has been found necessary to garble his parterre, to throw away the flowerets that are off show, and to plant out in smaller beds the perennials and evergreens of which there are still hopes. Addison lives, but not undecaying, nor unpruned; dead leaves are daily picked off; he does not luxuriate and replenish, and promise to bloom again in every summer of our literature.—Beattie is of much feebler stem than Addison. Charity and nationality held a hand-glass over his early reputation, and aided a sickly plant to grow up with a hot-house delicacy, which enabled it to pass for an exotic. Of his prose, little remains but the chapter on prosody in the Theory of Language. Of his verse, the Minstrel is generally supposed to retain value as a descriptive poem;

m; it is euphonous, but tedious; and its beauties con-
in its details rather than in its plan. We make these
ervations the more freely, because it is exceedingly import-
not to recommend inferior models to young persons. The
nan faculty never attains its entire capacity, until the greatest
ters have been read; the sooner the mind is taught to shape
thoughts in their moulds, the more likely it is to take their
it; and whoever directs admiration to mediocrity teaches
bition to be contented with attainments which can bestow
the individual but a trifling distinction, and on the country
accession of glory.

We are persuaded that this comprehensive dissertation, on
laws which govern the inflections of our tongue, will
ntribute to direct a curious attention to its structure, and
l favour that critical appretiation of its powers which is the
t pledge for their habitual exercise, and the best safeguard
ainst misuse and corruption.

T. X. *Blümchen der Einsamkeit; i. e.* Flowerets of Solitude.
By C. L. Reissig, Captain of Cavalry. 12mo. Boards. Boosey,
London. 1813.

GERMAN volume, printed and published in London, is
welcome to us, as announcing a growing care respecting
at language and literature. The writings of the Germans
eady command the attention of the continent; and their
othic dialect, notwithstanding its difficulty, may even in time
persede French as the vehicle of European erudition. In-
ed, there is a mass of information, partly compiled and partly
eculative, which constitutes the attainment of our age, and
hich subsists altogether only in German. Hence the com-
unicators of knowlege, of discovery, and of instruction, are
ery where finding the language to be necessary to them; and
ose philosophic bystanders, or gentlemen-critics, who choose
occupy such stations in the temple of science as enable them
see behind the curtain, are also learning it. German is be-
me the esoteric language of the European mind.

We have here a volume of easy and pleasing poems, which it
ay amuse the young scholar, the learner of German, to try
construe. They are intitled *Flowerets of Solitude*, and exhale
any sweetly-scented sighs. To Spring, to Sleep, to the
ottle, or to the Rose; to his Mistress, to his Friend, or to
s Mother; to the Birth-day or the Wedding-festival which he
ined, or to the Park which he visited, the author is prone to
press the tuneful sensibility of his affectionate reminiscence.
or a cavalry officer thus to know how to decorate and embellish

his

his leisure is a display of education, a mark of talent, and a proof of merit.

Writers of occasional poetry, of domestic verses, of social rhimes, of fire-side sonnets, who employ a muse to indite their notes, and Apollo to fill up their letters of congratulation, will readily find in this collection some apt model from which they may take hints, whatever ordinary subject may occupy their metrical activity. As German sentimentality has something so clinging and adhesive in its fondness as to leave English apathy at an aukward and blushing distance, these effusions have a tenderness which only Mr. Wordsworth, perhaps, among our own poets, might expect to rival. In warmth of attachment to little things, the brother-bards would agree; and they would sympathize in viewing the contiguous objects of nature through the microscope of a chrystalline tear.

Prose-translations of poetical compositions are at all times flat; and they are peculiarly so when the topic of the poem constitutes the smallest part of its interest; when it is the euphony of the lines, the flow of the phrase, the structure of the stanza, or the elegance of the turn and close, which bestows the charm. In reading these verses, we have been struck with a melody seldom attained in the Teutonic tongue, and with a display of feeling which endears the writer to the reader. Yet how could we convey, or even account for, these impressions, by any prosaic imitation? We must, then, have recourse to the rhiming machine in our drawer, which perhaps never went glibly, and which is now a little rusted from disuse; and by means of it strive to grind into verse a short — no, a long — specimen: for this poem occupies three pages of the volume, and others commonly fill but one or two.

Lamentation of a single Woman over the Cradle of her Child.

Sweet infant, glowing are thy cheeks
  As is the roseat light of morn;
The tints of health and ruddy life
  Thy little round plump face adorn:
The peace of God thy smile reveals,
  The calm of heaven thy bosom beams;
Angels of innocence are nigh
  To fan on thee their golden dreams.

Once I was pure and blest like thee,
  Knew but affections calm and mild:
My God, why taught'st thou me to love?
  O that I yet remain'd a child!
The spirits of those vernal days
  Pass me with downcast looks of gloom.

O Innocence! no prayer, no sigh,
Recalls thee from the early tomb.

Thy daughter, Modesty, is fallen low.
A voice of sighing from each echo speaks:
Burst are the bands that Chastity impos'd:
Shame and remorse have bleach'd these cheeks.
An orphan out-cast from my parents' home,
The household circle knows my place no more;
She — once so dear — averts her doubtful look
E'en friendship blushes for the love she bore.

Companions, weep for me; bewail my youth,
You on whose brows the virgin's chaplet stays;
Remember me when glows the pulse of love,
And let the seraph Virtue guide your ways.
Trust not the flattering lip of treacherous man:
He'll cast you off with heedless heartless sneers,
And, from the roseate brink of Pleasure's cliff,
Will spurn you into Misery's gulf of tears.

False man, for whom I ventur'd all in life
That hope could promise or my fate controul;
For whom I would have given the world away,
And the more precious blessing of my soul!
Father, who art in heaven, forgive thy child!
Must chill mistrust o'er every accent lour?
Is it but to beguile our innocence
That words of praise and tones of passion pour?

Why does my heart recall those fatal hours?
Still the thought vibrates in my quiv'ring breast,
And must, until beneath the yew-tree's shade
This mould'ring frame amid the turf shall rest.
Angel of death and peace, from heaven descend,
And rid me soon of this internal strife:
Calmer of human sorrow, downward bend
Thy dimmer torch, and quench this spark of life.

In this poem, and especially in the third stanza, pathetic ouches of real beauty are interspersed; and the persevering eader will elsewhere find many other passages equally attaching, hough animated by opposite emotions. Some of the poems rofess to be translated from the English: it would have been ell to accompany them with the original text: the task of ersion and reversion is not to be recommended merely to the nguist, but also to the poet, since it bestows not only a comand of idiom, but a command of phrase. — When will the rinting-presses of Vienna offer to the British muses a similar ospitality? When the business of nations shall be conducted ore by men of letters, and when the natural representatives of e European mind shall be the avowed agents of European tercourse.

ART. XI. *Christianity in India. Letters between Laicus and an East India Proprietor*, as they appeared in *the Times* Newspaper, in the Months of August, September, and October, 1813. 8vo. pp. 102. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

IT is said that *Christianity is wanted in India;* and this is very true, if by the proposition be meant that *it is desirable,* in an abstract moral and religious view, *that the faith of the Gospel should supplant the absurd, cruel, and in some respects immoral superstitions of the Hindoos.* To secure this object, however, which is so devoutly to be wished, we must take care to secure our station in India; for if, by a Quixotic adventure of humanity, we should lose our vast Asiatic empire, which is admitted by Mr. Wilberforce to be in a precarious situation, we shall be cut off from the very possibility of preaching Christianity in any degree or mode. Let us, therefore, look in the first place to the stability of our eastern possessions, and to their amelioration in the second. To invert this order is to hazard every thing, with the probability of effecting nothing. The benevolence of the object is divine: but, if it be injudiciously pursued, the catastrophe may be melancholy and even ruinous; and this is a case in which generous zeal must submit to be curbed by interested, or, as some will call it, low-calculating prudence. We are confirmed in the opinion of the necessity of *caution*, when we hear such language used as that we ought to despise 'a reptile policy;'—that we ought 'to go forwards, and "let Heaven answer for the rest."'

Since, however, the experiment has many powerful advocates, let us see how stand the *pros* and the *cons* in the field of argument.

Laicus begins in behalf of the measure; and he reasons with great energy, under an evident religious impression of our being bound in duty, as the governors of India, vigorously to attempt its conversion. From the practices of infanticide, of the burning of women with their deceased husbands, and of the sacrifice of human life at the shrine of idols, he argues that a cloud of darkness exists in India which requires to be dissipated by the light of the Gospel.—He replies to the objections which have been urged against the modern project for christianizing the East, and then enumerates the reasons which incline him to be friendly to it, viz. 1st, that *the state of the British residents*, and, 2dly, that *the state of the half-casts*, furnish claims to our attention; and, 3dly, that *a moral obligation compels us to diffuse the light which we enjoy.*

To the statements and arguments of *Laicus*, a gentleman replies who signs himself *an East India Proprietor;* and that plan, which *Laicus* views with so much satisfaction, appears to this opponent to be pregnant with danger. His opinion is that we cannot be too careful on *so delicate a subject as that of religion* *, and that the project is *perilous* and *impracticable*. 'A friend, a patron, a promoter of missionaries, confessed in his examination, before the House of Commons, that of his own knowledge he did not know *one*, not *even one, respectable Hindoo who had been converted*.' It is also contended by the *Proprietor* that 'India is not yet *ripe* for the proposed measure;' that, 'by increasing the number of missionaries there, we shall occasion increased alarms among the natives; and that this may lead to a dreadful explosion, by which our present vast empire will be *shattered into pieces*.' In a political point of view, he thus contemplates the subject; and we ought not to lose sight of the question in this very aspect of it: because, if we instruct the Hindoos in the policy of Christian states, we shall furnish them with weapons by which we must infallibly be expelled from the peninsula.

'It is a moral and political phenomenon, for a parallel to which we shall in vain search into the pages of history, and respecting which it would, therefore, be unsafe to pronounce any positive opinion. It seems, however, reasonable to expect, that the best chance *for the security* of the *present system of Government*, is the *continuance of the present state of opinions, and particularly on the subject of religion*. The religion of the Hindoos is intimately connected with their civil habits and customs: they are knit together, and, as it were, bound up in each other. These united constitute *their weakness, and our strength*. If, therefore, we discard these opinions,—if we strike off the fetters of superstition which chain them to the earth, they will spring up with an elasticity proportioned to the pressure they have sustained, and drive us from our seat.'

No two persons can differ more widely than these two writers; and *Laicus*, returning to the charge, contests every inch of ground with his adversary. So far is he from supposing that the present religious system of the Hindoos operates to our security, that he pleads for leading them to 'a knowledge of the Gospel, under an idea, that this gift will *attach them in heart to the British*, and thus be instrumental to the security of India.' A nation invaded and conquered, however, is not so easily *attached in heart* to its conquerors; and it is in the highest degree improbable that we should attach the Hindoos in heart to us, by discovering a settled plan of invading their religious prejudices and superstitions. When a nation has become Christian, and generally sensible of the value of the Gospel, it may look back with gratitude on those who introduced it to this knowlege: but, in the first shock and collision of opinions, no gratitude of this kind is ever felt. In the next age, Spain may thank Great Britain for the generous wish to free her from the curse of the Inquisition: but as yet she looks on us as officious heretics, and has restored the Inquisition; and so it may be in India.

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* We ought to advert, on this occasion, to the extraordinary case in point which is furnished by the Japanese. See p. 283. of this Review, and their persevering exclusion of the Russians, in the preceding pages.

The 'East India Proprietor,' in a fourth letter, reconsiders the arguments of his opponent, and minutely examines the question at issue, in all its principal bearings; concluding with asserting that 'we should abstain from attempting to tamper with the religion of the Hindoos.'

In a fifth, sixth, and seventh letter, the controversy is maintained between these gentlemen; and *Laicus* has the *last word;* but we are not sure that it is the word which will *last longest.* On the moral character of the Hindoos, the arguers are completely *east* and *west;* which will excite no surprize when *Laicus* takes the worst and the *Proprietor* chuses the best specimens which he can find. A similar opposition of sentiment exists on the practicability of their conversion, *Laicus* contends that we *possess the means;* while his correspondent asserts *that those means are wanting.* On a review of the controversy, the *Proprietor* thus sums up his argument:

'It is proposed to establish an Episcopal Government in India; and to grant additional facilities to Missionaries to proceed to India. I object to both these measures: — to the first, because it appears to me to be both unnecessary and dangerous. Unnecessary, because the affording religious instruction to the Protestant Christians, which is its professed object, may be easily accomplished by other means equally effectual, and free from the objections to which this is liable. Dangerous; first, because it may have a tendency to create alarm in the minds of the natives of India upon the subject of their religion. Secondly, because it may be employed as an instrument for the purpose of conversion. I object to the second measure, viz. the facilities to be granted to Missionaries; because I disapprove of attempting to convert the Hindoos to Christianity. I disapprove of such attempts, because I consider them to be dangerous, and not likely to meet with success. That they are dangerous, I conclude from the evidences of experience, — from the character of the people, — and from the concurring testimony of those best qualified to form an opinion on the subject: that they will be unsuccessful, I conclude from the same considerations.

'Out of the agitation of this question a collateral discussion has arisen; highly important in itself, but not *necessarily* connected with the main points in dispute. It is contended by the advocates for conversion, that the Hindoos are suffering under the most dreadful state of moral depravity, addicted to every vice which can degrade our nature;

ture; that these vices are attributable to their religion; and that, therefore, it is our bounden duty to convert them to Christianity.

'In reply to these arguments, I contend, first, that the moral character of the Hindoos is not deserving of the severity with which it is censured: and I support that opinion by a variety of important evidence, drawn from unquestionable authorities. I contend, secondly, that their vices are not attributable to their religion; and I endeavour to establish that point, first, by a reference to its internal evidences; and, secondly, by the authority of competent judges. Having shewn that their vices (*of course speaking generally throughout*) are not attributable to their religion, I conclude, that their moral character may be improved without their conversion; and in proof of this, I refer to the success which has attended the efforts already made with a view to this great object.'

Notwithstanding the sound judgment of the '*East India Proprietor*,' it makes not the smallest impression on *Laicus*; who seems to be more eager for setting forwards the experiment of converting 60,000,000 of Hindoos, in proportion to the opposition which it receives. He will cherish the belief that 'we shall be more likely to strengthen than to weaken their good opinion of us, by offering them *the best gift* in our power to bestow:' but he seems not to be aware that, *at the season* in which this gift is offered, very different estimates will be formed of it by us and by them; and that, by indiscreetly obtruding this *best gift* on them, we may be the means of alienating instead of conciliating their affections:—thus retarding rather than advancing the march of Divine truth, which proceeds surely, but never with a rapidity sufficient to satisfy the enthusiast.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1814.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Ode on the Arrival of the Potentates in Oxford;* and *Judicium Regale*, an Ode. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

Occupying, at this moment of general exultation, a most triumphant eminence among the states of Europe, we naturally feel rather proud and elated; and, after having most materially contributed to help our neighbours out of the tyranny in which the victories of one man had involved them, we must be allowed to boast that we alone ne'er crouched, nor "*bated jot of heart or hope.*"

> 'But Britain from the world and the world's shame
> Sate sever'd, like her kindred Ocean free,
> The rampire of her glories, Nelson's name,
> And her broad flags that crimson'd the wide sea.'

Monarchs whom we have assisted in the mighty warfare come to visit us, after their glorious achievements; and this visit awakens recollections of the struggles which have been made and the changes which have been effected. The poet knows how to place this picture before us. Bonaparte invades Russia, and penetrates to Moscow,

> " *Exitus ergo quis est? O gloria! vincitur idem*
> *Nempe, et in exilium præceps fugit.*"

Icy arrows overwhelm the invader's army; he escapes: but his veteran army is not to be replaced. He, however, raises another force, and tries his strength at Leipsic; here again he is defeated and flies; the allies pursue him to his capital, and there hurl him from his double throne, and restore France to her antient race of kings. The generous conduct of the allied sovereigns, on taking possession of Paris, is a theme of eulogy: but the poet rather concludes with inflicting a sting than with offering a sugar-plumb.

> ' Ye mighty Kings, a flatterer's honied rhyme
> Were poison to a free-born Briton's tongue,
> Burst be the harp, that with its luscious chime
> Tinkles to slumber souls that scoff at wrong.
> By those ye sway is witness'd what ye are,
> Go search the nations! walk your subject earth!
> If all be peaceful, free, and blissful there;
> Thank Heaven that ye were born of royal birth.'

If these monarchs, on their return home, were to give their subjects the British constitution, their visit to England would indeed be worthy of record.

In the *Judicium Regale*, we recognize more of genius than of nice execution. The idea is new, but obscurity often prevails, with defective rhythm, and lines scarcely English. The author dreams that he saw 'the sceptred of the world' assembled in a tall imperial city, and forming a kind of 'kingly Sanhedrin;' before which stood an 'Imperial criminal,' (Bonaparte,) and

> ' —— from north to south an ireful train
> Forth came this mighty culprit to arraign.'

Of the accusing nations, France in the last place prefers her depositions, and concludes with calling on the royal Judges to pass the following sentence:

> ' " For yon dark chief of woe, and guilt, and strife,
> O sceptred Judges! punish him with life.
> Fear not he seek, with the old Roman pride,
> That weakness to the noble soul allied,
> To die as Cato, and as Brutus died.
> Fear not that in his abject heart he show
> That martyr fortitude, that smiles in woe.
> By him shall that great secret be betrayed,
> Of what poor stuff are earth's dread tyrants made.
> Oh, let him live to be despis'd, to see
> France happy, and the glorious nations free,
> Death were delight to that deep misery!"—

‘ Then did that kingly conclave, with one voice,
  Pass the dread sentence on the gloomy man ;
In his soul's icy deadness he alone
By others' woes seem'd harden'd to his own.
  From land to land the penal tidings ran ;
Earth lifted up her rich face to rejoice,
The bright blue heavens bade wintry warring cease,
And spring came dancing o'er a world at peace.’

'his poem may be much improved. The passage at p. 28., begin- ; ‘ Was mid,’ &c. is devoid of all construction.

. 13. *Carmen Seculare :* an Ode for the Year 1814. By Arthur Clifford, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Booker.

[ever at any period were our poets so *full of work*, as the taylors ld say. In addition to verse-making on account of recent vic- es, — on the return of peace, — and on the visit of the allied so- igns, the bard is required to try his skill in a *Secular Ode ;* for be nown that this year of brilliant events is the hundredth anniversary he accession of the house of Hanover to the throne of this realm. n this is not all. ‘ It is a singular and auspicious circumstance, the very day on which King George the First ascended the ne of Great Britain, one hundred years ago, should by the alte- on of the style, correspond exactly with the birth-day of his yal Highness the Prince Regent. George I. succeeded to the wn August 1. 1714. By the alteration of the style, which k place in England, according to act of Parliament, in 1751–2, n *eleven days* were at once thrown out of the Calendar, the 1st of gust of the year 1714 coincides *exactly* with the 12th of August his present year, 1814.’

'his coincidence is very near, but not quite exact ; because, since commencement of the present century, the difference between the and the new style is *twelve* days ; in the year 1800, another day ing been thrown out, by assigning only 28 days to February ; ch, according to the ordinary rule of leap-year, ought to have 29.

'o this ode is also prefixed a Sketch of the Origin and Antiquity the House of Brunswick, which is not only traced up to the elphs, whose quarrels with the Ghibellines make such a figure in history of Italy in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, but also to lines of Este in Italy, and Guelph in Germany, a thousand years ; Guelph I., Count or Duke of Bavaria, being contemporary h Charlemagne.

'or boldness of character, this ode merits the epithet Pindaric : but its structure it too much reminds us of Gray's Bard. Charle- gne, passing through the woods of Vallombrosa, is arrested by awful sounds of

“ Halt, King ! hear the true prophetic strain
    That shall eclipse thy reign.”

uck with astonishment, the monarch checks his course, when a erend hermit appears, and delivers the mysterious prophetic tale the glories which were in reserve for the Brunswick race :

' "Ye far-famed potentates of ancient days!
Hide your diminished rays.
Realms, where the Greek and Roman never trod,
Bow to great George's nod.
Why in the eastern sky afar,
Where primeval nations dwell;
Why so bright yon blazing star?
Who the omen can foretel?
Shall Britain's thunder heaven-born Nile affright?
Shall Ganges roll his floods submissive to her might?

' "Ah! when shall discord, war, and bloodshed cease?
Who give the nations peace?
What favoured Prince, with more than sovereign power,
Shall seal the happy hour?
Earthquakes rend the solid ground,
Dread volcanoes whelm the land,
Floods their deluge pour around,
Plagues appal in horrid band.
O'er guilty nations vengeful furies spread —
Does George uphold her cause?—fall'n Europe lifts her head.

' "Hail! Royal daughter! hope of Britain, hail!
To thee, each sea-born gale,
From earth's remotest isles, on gladsome wing,
Shall Ocean's homage bring.
Through orange groves and myrtle bowers,
Led by laughing loves she plays,
Circled by the rosy hours,
O'er the flowery scene she strays.
From her, what kings their proud descent shall claim!
What nations shall exult in Royal Charlotte's name!

' "Ye unborn ages! countless suns that roll!
Ye overwhelm my soul.
To thee, immortal Chief! and to thy seed,
An empire is decreed.
A thousand years shall fly apace,
Moments in the ETERNAL's eye,
When another regal race
Thee and thine shall far outvie.
Bright in the western main I see them bloom,
Fixed is their brilliant fate, fixed is their glorious doom." '

After having delivered this prediction, the hermit retires, and Charlemagne proceeds to Rome.

Our victories on the Nile and our possessions on the Ganges are very properly introduced into this Secular Ode, which hymns the unrivalled glory and unprecedented prosperity of Great Britain at the present moment.

Art. 14. *Ode to the Emperor Alexander.* By the Author of "The Orphans, or the Battle of Nevil's Cross." 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

After a variety of laurel-crowns, garlands, and triumphal arches, prepared for the victorious Alexander, here comes a little chaplet of Parnassian weeds. Surely this offering might have been spared, since it is not creditable to the hand that presents it, nor worthy of the august brow for which it is intended. On joyful occasions, the bard who gives his *improvisatore* effusion is pardoned some faults: but a printed ode in the following style cannot pass muster:

> 'Scarce had thy youthful brow
>   The regal round engirt, in happy hour,
> When feeling for thy fellows trampled low
>   (Earth's monarchs once!) by Gaul's prevailing pow'r,
>   Germania's fields *thou sought*,
>   And aiding Asia, hosted Europe brought.'

For the reputation of the British muse, we hope that this ode has little chance of meeting the eye of the Emperor Alexander.

Art. 15. *Ode to Wellington.* By the Author of the "Ode to the Emperor Alexander." 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

"Who would not sing" *for Wellington?* and though we cannot add, "He knew himself to sing and build the lofty rhime," he has achieved fame so truly towering that every muse is ready to build for him the lofty rhime, and, conceiving that more honour is received than conveyed in this service, will adopt the humble language of Pope,

> "Say shall my little bark attendant sail,
> Pursue the triumph, and partake the gale?"

The minstrel before us, notwithstanding the improved dexterity with which he here strikes his lyre, feels himself unequal to the grandeur of his subject, which ought to "call another Grecian from the skies," and in the introduction humbly mentions his 'weaker wing.' It is unfortunate for the bard that many others have preceded him in the same track; and that the victories of the deliverer of Spain have been so often recounted, that it requires genius of the highest order to invest this favourite topic with any air of novelty. One rule, however, should be observed even by the lyric muse, who in her wildest flights ought not to lose her memory, viz. the order of events; and therefore the victory of *Busaco* should not be mentioned before that of *Talavera*.

This short ode opens with welcoming the hero to his home, and concludes with wishing that, as a reward for the toils of war, he may long enjoy peace:

> 'Wake the voice of peace and pleasure!
> Lead the dance to Lydian measure!
>   Now retreating, now advancing,
> Jocund see the happy swain,
>   Beauty's smile the bliss enhancing,
> Featly foot the daisied plain!
> Land of my heart! may singing shepherd tend,
>   Long on thy slopes, in peace, his fleecy care;

And peaceful long the whistling plowman wend
His homeward way, nor dream of rampant war!
And long may he who bade the *storm* to cease,
Crown'd with a *people's* love, bask in the *sun* of peace!!'

On the cover of this pamphlet, the public is informed that the whole proceeds of the two odes (free of expence) will be 'applied in aid of the fund for the relief of the sufferers by war in Germany.'

Art. 16. *Midnight Dreams; or* prophetic Visions of the R—l Blood. A Poem, by Peter Pindar, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Johnston.

"Beware of counterfeits," is a hint as necessary in Pater-noster-row as in Cheapside. To fight under false colours is a common *ruse de guerre* with authors; and we more than suspect that, in the present instance, some artful fox has put on the skin of the old lion: but alas! it is the skin without the muscle. In this and the two recent productions which bore the name of our old facetious friend, an uniformity of stanza prevails which is unlike the sportive and lyric muse of the original Peter. He, we fear, has done with *wit*, and his self-made namesake follows him *haud passibus æquis*. These *Midnight Dreams* contain satirical sketches of the r—l brothers, and are meant in some instances "*to speak daggers*," but form on the whole a heavy detail, running through 152 stanzas. The recitations of the r—l dreamers, viz. the P——e R——t and the Dukes of Y—k, Cl——e, and C——d, disclose facts which conscience, in the visions of the night, is apt to display. To the last, the ghost of S——s, with a razor in his hand, makes his appearance; and many stanzas are employed to aid our recollection of this melancholy story. The subject is indeed too serious for satire; and the stanzas which are meant to hold the P——e up to ridicule are too coarse and low.

Art. 17. *The Poet's Disaster; or a Peep at Parnassus.* Humbly inscribed to certain *candid* Reviewers. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

'It seemed that in a *horse-pond* foul,
Most impiously cast!
I had, as you have lately seen,
All but breathed out my last.'

'A set of *odd-like* fellows in masquerade' are accused of having given the author this foul ducking, and by these *odd-like* fellows he means Reviewers; who, in his partial judgment, have treated his muse too roughly on some former occasion. An application is then made to Criticism, by way of finale, who is required to be candid, 'though *sternly just*.' The author, however, does not know what he asks; for were critics, with the very soul of candour, to be *strictly just* in their strictures on this poem, he would dream a second time of being soused in a horse-pond.

Art. 18. *The Poetical Works* of Richard Hatt, Author of the "Hermit," &c. including Supplementary Poems; with a Letter to the Rev. John Sim, A.B. Second Edition. Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Westley and Co. 1814.

As no writers are more vain and more irritable than poets, none re more hurt by the strictures of criticism. Mr. Hatt was probably ffended by our notice of his "Hermit," in Vol. lxiv. N. S. p.102.; nd we should augment his displeasure if we delivered our real opinion of the poems now before us: but, as he appears to be unfor-unate, and as the lyre 'fell unenjoyed from his hand at the sixth heet,' we shall abstain from remarks.

Art. 19. *The Russian Chiefs*: an Ode. By George Hardinge, Esq. Second Edition. 4to. Booth. 1814.

We again mention this ode, which we introduced to our readers in he Review for August last, in order to apprize them of the name f its distinguished author, who now avows the production; and to nform them that it has not only undergone a very minute and exten-ive revision, but has received several additions, in the text and in he notes. The punctuation has been throughout much amended, he obscurities have been removed, and some of the *names* of the eulogized *chiefs* are introduced. For all these and other attentions to our ormer remarks, our best bow of acknowlegement is due. Our hint of the parallel between the boat of Xerxes and the sledge of Napoleon has also been adopted, and has occasioned the introduction of thirty-ix new lines, which have considerable felicity. A Preface, moreover, as been added; in which the author speaks of the unexpected glorious changes that have occurred since he wrote the ode, and compliments the magnanimous conduct of Alexander with merited force.

Art. 20. *The Tyrant's Downfall; Napoleonics; and the White Cockade*. By William-Thomas Fitz-Gerald, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co, &c. 1814.

For a series of years, Mr. Fitz-Gerald has poetically recorded his detestation of Bonaparte, whom he terms 'the monster of our times.' To shew how uniform his sentiments have been respecting the fallen tyrant, he has reprinted various extracts from his Addresses to the Literary Fund, from the period of the French Revolution in 1799 to the year 1813; in which 'the blood nurs'd Corsican' is painted in the most abhorrent colours, and his fate is foretold. In the Address called 'The White Cockade,' first published Jan. 13. 1814, so indignant is the poet against Napoleon, that he calls on the assassin

'To rid the world, by one avenging deed,
Of Him who made devoted millions bleed!'

Better advice follows, which exhorts the French to 'be again themselves,' 'to break their chains,' and 'welcome home the White Cockade.'—*The Tyrant's Downfall* is an address which was recited by the author to the Literary Fund at Freemasons' Hall, May 5. 1814. Here, with undiminished if not with increasing energy, Mr. Fitz-Gerald pursues his subject, applauds the part which our statesmen and heroes have taken in the war, compliments England as the head and heart of the league, eulogizes our confederates, and exults in the completion of his former predictions by the downfall of Bonaparte.

'The World's Oppressor triumph'd in our times,
And upon crimes accumulated crimes!
Still on his steps did desolation wait,
And trembling nations thought his frown was fate!
But Heaven resolv'd that France should rue the hour
That gave the Corsican imperial power;
And those who made his hated cause their care,
Humbled in dust — the retribution share!
The tyrant's hopes of universal sway,
Perish'd in blood on Leipsic's awful day!
Baffled and beaten the Usurper flies
Before the veteran Blücher's eagle eyes!
Th' invaded Russians, in their turn, invade
T' avenge their burning towns in ashes laid;
Like rolling billows on the raging main,
The flames of Moscow reach the banks of Seine;
And France has learn'd, in bitterness of woe,
What fatal ills from mad ambition flow:
Compell'd, while vengeance laid her cities waste,
The poison cup she drugg'd — to more than taste!
For all the tears that mourning nations shed,
Have been aveng'd upon her guilty head.
Though, from the battles rage, the German glows
To visit years of sufferings on his foes,
Though loud for vengeance every Russian cries,
The Kremlin's flames still glaring in his eyes!
From northern climes th' Imperial hero came,
To join the Christian's to the conqueror's name!
Mercy, inherent in the truly brave,
Taught Alexander in his strength to save —
And prostrate Paris in the Victor found
A hand to raise — not spurn her to the ground:
Slowly she rose; she heard the monarch's sigh,
And saw compassion beaming in his eye;
'Twas pity's drop divine! to mortals dear,
The liquid di'mond of an angel's tear!
Above all price! it shines the brightest gem
In glorious Alexander's diadem!'

The line marked with italics is beautiful; and we may say, on the whole, that Mr. F.'s verse is superior to most of the poetic effusions on the present occasion.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 21. *Substance of the Speeches of William Wilberforce*, Esq. on the Clause in the East-India Bill for promoting the religious Instruction and Moral Improvement of the Natives of the British Dominions in India, 22d June and 1st and 12th July 1813. 8vo. Hatchard, &c.

When the moral and religious state of the Hindoos is considered, every true Christian must wish that their gross superstitions and abject depravity could be cured by introducing among them the knowlege of the Gospel: but the disproportion between the native population of our Eastern dominions (60,000,000) and that of their European governors, (say 40,000,) with the consequent precarious tenure by which we hold them, have led very intelligent and respectable men to be apprehensive of the result of openly attempting to convert them. Mr. Wilberforce, however, endeavours to obviate all arguments which have been employed by those who would discourage the Missionary-scheme from assuming the shape of a system sanctioned by Parliament, and with much eloquence advocates his side of the question. If he does not speak from actual observation and a personal acquaintance with the East, he has employed every means within his reach for obtaining accurate information, and adduces abundant evidence in support of his statements. He takes a view of the gross immorality of the native inhabitants of India, and of their indecent and sanguinary superstitions; contending that Christianity is the only remedy for these enormous evils. His amiable mind is shocked at the thought of sixty millions of the Asiatic subjects of the British empire, 'who are stated to have all the vices of savage life, without any of its virtues;' and he rejects the notions of those who have maintained the impracticability of converting them. He urges Parliament to sanction a *prudent* attempt of this kind; and delivers it as his opinion that we are impelled to the step by the strongest obligations of duty. From some striking facts, he argues that it is not so difficult to persuade the Hindoos to part with their errors as we are taught to imagine: but, however important these facts may be in themselves, and however instructive they may prove in the contemplation of the moral and religious improvement of the natives of India, we cannot think that they establish the point for which Mr. W. is so strenuous. It appears from the evidence of Colonel Walker, that he had the address to induce a sect to discontinue a cruel rite which superstition had long sanctioned: but it does not follow that the suspicions of the Hindoos would not be generally roused by a *systematic* attempt on our part to change the religion of the East. Mr. W. admits that we hold our Asiatic empire by a very precarious tenure; and ought we not to reflect that, by attempting too much in the way of conversion, we may lose our civil power in India, and with it the very possibility of affording any religious instruction? *Caution* is inculcated by Mr. W.: but, if it be generally known among the Hindoos that nothing short of making them Christians will content us, may they not revolt? By well-meant premature measures, we may retard the march of revealed truth. *The Lord will hasten it in his own time.*

Art. 22. *Bookkeeping no Bugbear*, or Double Entry simplified, in opposition to the insufficiency of the present Practice. By Michael Power. 8vo. pp. 202. 15s. Boards. Rivingtons.

While we fully agree with Mr. Power as to the difficulty, of which he appears perfectly aware, that is attendant on the introduction of any innovation in mercantile counting-houses, we must take the liberty of adding that he has not been careful to adopt the course most likely to obviate this difficulty. Engaging to point out the advantages of brevity in book-keeping, he has involved his ideas in more diffuse and complex language than we could have supposed to be possible, on a subject so much calculated to suggest a plain and direct phraseology. He is, however, perfectly right in premising that very few mercantile houses keep their books posted to the current day; and indeed the practice of monthly entries, and not unfrequently the want of a proper distribution of labour in a counting-house, are the causes of delay to an extent by no means suspected by persons out of business. These delays are attributed by Mr. Power, and with some reason, to the circuitous mode now followed in making entries. Before a sum is charged to an individual in his definitive account, in the ledger, it has generally passed through three or four preliminary books, each adapted to exhibit the course of transactions in a particular form; these books are different in different houses, but they consist most commonly in a cash-book, waste-book, and journal. On the contrary, he proceeds on the plan of disusing the journal, and of posting entries at once from the waste or cash-book into the ledger.

It was formerly a general practice to make a record of all transactions in a waste-book as a kind of basis for the subsequent entries; which record consisted in notes or memoranda made by the partner or the clerk, who had transacted the business in question, and was generally couched in plain terms, without reference to the technical forms of book-keeping. To reduce it to the latter was the charge of the professed book-keeper, who posted these entries daily, weekly, or monthly, into a regular journal. In late years, merchants have disused the waste-book; and the book-keepers have posted the journal at once from certain auxiliary records, such as the cash-book, bill-book, invoice-book, account of sales-book, &c. This was a considerable improvement, inasmuch as perspicuity and accuracy are promoted by classing cash, bills, &c. in separate books; and, when once entered there, they needed no repetition in the waste-book. Mr. Power acknowleges the advantage of these auxiliary books, but is inclined to retain, for certain transactions, the old method of a waste-book-entry. He gives to the latter, however, the plain name of memorandum-book, and considers that it should be open to every clerk of the house who may have a transaction to record. He makes it a receptacle for noting all bargains, and their principal conditions, as soon as they are settled: but this is nothing new; and the merit of his system rests almost exclusively on the question of the propriety of omitting the use of a journal, and of posting entries directly to debtor and creditor in the ledger. In order to make his plan more intelligible, he exhibits examples by way of contrast between his method and that of Mr. Jackson. It is at present common among merchants to make the ledger-entries very short, — little more, indeed, than a reference to the journal: but Mr. Power makes the ledger-entry minute and particular, thinking that a full explanation can be placed no where with so much propriety as on the face of the account. — The circuitous form of regular book-keeping has made many merchants adopt, for personal accounts, the more direct plan of an account-current-book: but this, under Mr. Power's rule, is unnecessary,

sary, the ledger serving the same purpose both in fullness of explanation and in promptitude of posting.

Mr. P. admits that his plan is useful chiefly to persons who keep their own books, and who will naturally prefer dispatch and diminution of trouble to the arguments generally alleged in favour of the present system: those who keep clerks are less likely to forsake the established plan. He has, however, unluckily brought forwards his arguments with too much pomp of language; his method being nothing more than that which, to our knowlege, has occurred to individuals who had practised, in their partnership-concerns, book-keeping on the established plan, but were contented to keep their private books in the summary mode which, to Mr. Power, appears in the light of so fortunate a discovery. We do not, indeed, wish to represent the plan as generally known: but it has long been the custom in some houses of trade tô disuse journal-entries regarding cash-transactions, and to post the ledger from the cash-book at once; and this was a considerable approximation to Mr. Power's method.—The journal is generally recommended as a duplicate of the ledger in the event of accident: but, in lieu of it, Mr. P. suggests the propriety of a regular transcript of the ledger. He recommends, also, that the inventory or general statement of a merchant's affairs should not appear in the journal; a book which is open to every clerk in the house. — He admits that his method is not so favourable to fine writing in books as the established practice, but he argues that it is quite as little or indeed less liable to error, because mistakes frequently occur in the repetitions which are necessary in the course of the different modifications of the present plan.

We are fully satisfied, with Mr. Power, that book-keeping may be considerably improved; and that it would be highly expedient to put merchants on a plan which would have the effect of preventing the occurrence of the delays at present so frequent in posting their accounts: but the mode of doing this is involved in difficulty, particularly as different branches of business require distinct applications of the rules of book-keeping. — By way of general observation, we would throw out the idea of rendering the task of book-keeping, which in general is irksome, the joint occupation of two persons, whenever such co-operation is practicable. Nothing tends more to animate or quicken labour than arrangements of this description. Even in a house of consequence, the entries for the transactions of a week might be made in the course of a few hours by two persons, one of whom should be qualified to dictate to the other. Another idea, not undeserving of attention, is the propriety of confining to a private ledger thôse explanations relative to the capital and profits of a house, which at present are open to the eye ôf the clerks in the same way as transactions in which secrecy is not in any degree an object.

Art. 23. *Letters addressed to Two absent Daughters.* By Mrs. Rundell. Crown 8vo. 8s. Boards. Rees. 1814.

Mrs. Rundell prefaces these letters by saying that 'she lays no claim to originality, but desires to obtain credit for the goodness of her intentions;' and this praise needs not be denied, since her book is uniformly moral, and contains some sensible and useful reflections;

particularly

particularly those on death (in page 131.) and on friendship. (P. 135. to 137.) It might, however, have been rendered more lively, if a few of those letters had been inserted which the young ladies are supposed to address to their mother; and, to make it grammatically correct, the following passages should have been altered: Page 124. 'Avoid writing very small, as though pretty to look at, *it* is often illegible.'—Page 253. 'I never knew a person that was addicted to lying who had not other faults; for where *it* exists there must be something to conceal,' &c.

Art. 24. *Sixth Report of the Directors of the African Institution*, read at the Annual General Meeting on the 25th of March 1812. To which are added an Appendix, and a List of the Subscribers. 8vo. pp. 183. 2s. Hatchard.

With extreme satisfaction, we observe and record the spirited and persevering exertions of this truly philanthropic society. Its object is threefold, viz. to procure the complete suppression of the Slave-Trade; to ameliorate the condition of those negroes who are transported into the West Indies; and to diffuse the blessings of knowledge and civilization over the vast continent of Africa. The present Report commences with lamenting that, notwithstanding the efforts of the British Government to extinguish this nefarious traffic in human flesh, it has in fact revived to even a *greater* extent than that which was noticed in the last Report *; and that the Directors have reason to believe that, during the year 1810, not fewer than from 70,000 to 80,000 Africans were transported as slaves from the western coast of Africa to the opposite shores of the Atlantic. They inform us that this enormous traffic was chiefly confined to that part of Africa which lies between Cape Palmos and Benguela; that the Portuguese settlement at Bissao furnished the slave-traders with a point from which they could carry slaves without the risk of capture; and that divers collusions and frauds were practised by the owners of slave-ships, to elude the prohibitory enactments of the law which aims at the abolition of the Slave-Trade. By a variety of documents given in the Appendix, much light is thrown not only on the efforts of the slave-dealers to render the act of Abolition unpopular in Africa, but on the arts adopted by slave-merchants in Europe and America to prevent the seizure of their ships. As the Directors are fully awake to all the iniquity which is exercised on this occasion, we trust that their endeavours, with the aid of Government, will be ultimately crowned with success. 'Cases have been very numerous, in which subjects of the United States have been found, under the disguise of Spanish and Portuguese flags, prosecuting this nefarious traffic.'

Respecting the treatment of slaves in the West India islands, details of a very affecting nature are communicated: but, while we read with horror of the brutality displayed by Mr. Hodge, a planter of Tortola, towards his slaves, our minds are relieved by the information that this monster in a human form was brought to justice; and we applaud the noble conduct of Governor Elliot, who resisted the application for mercy made by the jury after having found Hodge guilty of murder, and who put the island under martial law that no attempt might be made to obstruct the execution of this atrocious offender. Such a commendable example cannot fail of striking terror into slave-owners; and it will lead all planters to remember the kind and degree of legal protection which their slaves enjoy.

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* See M. R. Vol. lxvi. N. S. p. 446.

The last objects of this report,—the condition of the African continent, and the means of its improvement,—open a very wide field of inquiry; and the Directors of this Institution have presented us with such interesting and amusing information, as they 'hope will lead to the adoption of some new and beneficial measures with respect to Africa.' Large districts of this continent are found to be susceptible of the most profitable cultivation; and the Directors have very humanely sent persons to different African chiefs, to convince them that they would obtain more riches by employing their people in cultivation than by selling them for slaves. It appears from actual experiments that indigo, cotton, coffee, the sunn-plant of Bengal, which produces excellent hemp, and other profitable vegetables, may be raised in Africa. An extract is made from a journal of one Isaac, which anounces the death of Mr. Park; who, after having reached the Niger, was murdered on that river: but the Directors do not vouch for the truth of the statement; they add, however, that 'the narrative of Mr. Park himself, and also that of Isaac,' (the publication of which is promised, and probably by this time has made its appearance,) 'afford convincing evidence as to the great natural capacities, both agricultural and commercial, of this neglected quarter of the globe.' Completely to make out their case, the Directors proceed one step farther, and endeavour to prove not only the good qualities of the soil, but the capacities of the African race for improvement; a fact which some persons have presumed to call in question. The Directors state that 'they have long felt a strong persuasion of the capacity of the African *to fill the same place with the European in civil society*, provided the fair opportunities and advantages are afforded him of manifesting the native faculties of his mind.' They add, that

'They have recently had a fresh proof exhibited to them, and to the world, of the unreasonableness of those prejudices, which, from viewing the Africans only in a situation of bondage and degradation, have led to a contrary conclusion. The fact to which they allude is, the arrival in this country of Captain Paul Cuffee, an American black, in his own ship, The Traveller, navigated by himself, and manned, with a single exception, by persons of his own colour. Captain Cuffee having been informed of the efforts which had been made in favour of his brethren in Africa, first by the Sierra Leone Company, and afterwards by this Institution, was anxious to ascertain, by a personal view of Sierra Leone and its inhabitants, and by personal intercourse with the friends of Africa in this country, whether he himself could in any way become instrumental in promoting their objects. A licence was accordingly procured for him, which permitted him to take a cargo from America to Sierra Leone, and a return-cargo thence to

England. He arrived at Liverpool in the month of July last. Soon after his arrival he visited London; and such of the Directors as had an opportunity of conferring with him were much gratified by his general intelligence, the accuracy of his observations and statements, and the apparent elevation of his principles. He was afterwards invited to attend a meeting of the Committee of the Board, specially called for the purpose of conferring with him; which the illustrious Patron of this Society honoured with his presence; and the interview left a very favourable impression of his mental and moral qualities on the mind of his Royal Highness, (the Duke of Gloucester,) and of all the Directors who attended. He gave a clear and encouraging account of what he had seen in Africa, and suggested many considerations which may eventually lead to important results. On these, however, the Directors need not now enter. He left England in the month of September last, on his return to Sierra Leone; from which place he intended to proceed to Massachusets, in America, where his family resides.

'In relation to Captain Cuffee, it may be proper briefly to inform the meeting, that by unwearied industry and well directed enterprise, under Providence, he has gradually risen from a state of poverty and obscurity, to the possession of considerable property, and to the enjoyment of a large share of consideration in society; and that all this has been effected in the face of difficulties which would have been above the exertions of most men, and in spite of the prejudices which tend to retain in a state of unjust degradation all who derive their origin from Africa.'

Encouraged by this striking instance, the Society have obtained from Sierra Leone two African youths, whom they have placed under the care of Mr. Lancaster; and it is said that their progress during the nine months of their residence in England has been more rapid than it could have been expected to be.

Every part of this Report is substantiated by ample documents, which truly enrich the Appendix, and merit particular attention. We cannot advert to all the contents of these valuable papers: but we shall copy two short passages from the report of the Commissioners of African Inquiry, on the subject of the Slave-Trade, and on the settlement of Sierra Leone. Concerning the first, they observe; 'We have not sufficient means to prevent the Slave-Trade in general from being carried on; but if, instead of opposing it generally, we confine ourselves for the present to some one branch of it, there is a great próbability of our success there, and of a constant gradual extension of that success at a more remote period.'—Adverting to the Sierra Leone settlement, they tell us that 'its situation is extremely well chosen; that it certainly has had the effect of diminishing, in a very great degree, the Slave-Trade in its neighbourhood;' and that, if as a settlement 'it has fallen short of the sanguine expectations which had been formed of its success, there is every fair probability that Africa will ultimately derive much good from this settlement; not rapidly indeed, nor perhaps extensively, for this century, but still advancing as fast as can be reasonably expected from power and resources so slender and disproportioned to such a gigantic undertaking, as the civilization of any considerable portion of a continent so steeped in barbarity as Africa.'

We wish to extend our notice of the other Addenda to this Report: but want of room, on this as on numerous occasions, obliges us to reluctant brevity.

Among the recommendations of this Institution, it may be said to be one that it is patronized by the intelligent and humane Society of Quakers. In the list of subscribers, we find this item: 'A member of the Society of Friends, called Quakers, 525*l*.' While this Friend manifests a liberality far surpassing any other instance in the list, he modestly withholds his name.

POLITICS.

Art. 25. *Observations on the late Treaty of Peace with France; so far as it relates to the Slave Trade:* in a Letter to a Friend. 8vo. 1s. Butterworth and Son.

Excepting Ministers, probably no persons in this country were aware that the treaty, which was hailed with universal extacy as giving security and *peace* to Europe, was to sanction the revival of the inhuman Slave-Trade on the coast of Africa, for at least five years to come. The nation, in general, in a manner which does honour to the character of Britons, expresses its concern at having the glorious event of peace debased by a condition so repugnant to the principles of men and of Christians; and it feels astonished that our negotiators, after the pointed reprobation of this trade by the Legislature, could consent to allow the French (who were in a vanquished condition, and therefore not in a capacity to dictate terms,) to resume a traffic which we had pronounced to be "contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy." Some reason which does not float on the surface must have led to this revolting measure; and it is worthy of notice that, in our treaty with Sweden, in which we agree to cede to her the rich island of Guadaloupe, we restrain her from engaging in the Slave Trade.

The author of this letter is laudably indignant at the idea of our abandoning a great moral principle, and a great moral duty, to which the country was solemnly pledged: but he has not marked with sufficient reprobation the hypocritical wording of the article in question, which commences with talking about humanity, and then inflicts the most savage cruelty on millions! It is, indeed, contended by the letter-writer that the article was perfectly inadmissible; and that 'no nation is warranted in making itself a party to an engagement which has for its object transactions or trade which cannot be carried on without injustice and inhumanity to others.' The grounds on which this concession to the French is opposed are solid:

'Had the question been, whether the French should carry on the Slave-Trade, from points on the coast of Africa in their possession, to colonies over which they had the dominion, it would have been very different from that which is now before us. It might have involved the consideration, how far we, as a great maritime nation, should have been called upon to become the champions and protectors of the defenceless nations of Africa, against the oppressions of those who should attempt to carry their inhabitants into slavery and misery. Although there may be less difficulty, even in that question, than may at first sight be admitted; yet we are not now under the necessity of coming to a determination on that part of the subject. In our present case, the points and settlements on the coast of Africa to be given up, as well as the colonies in the Indies, are our own; they are under our protection; and the question is, whether we have any right to give them up, with the avowed intention of permitting all the horrors of that trade, which, in those very places, we consider so infamous as to render it proper to visit its agents with the penalties of *felony*. At present those places and islands do not belong to the French, they have no natural right or claim to them; and if we think it expedient, or convenient, to cede them to France, it is our moral duty, and therefore with respect to us, as a nation, a political obligation, to take care that their inhabitants are not, by any agreement or admission on our part, given up to certain pillage, slavery, and murder.

'The difficulty which will attend the abolition, at the end of five years, furnishes another reason why the article should not have been agreed to.'

Let us look at it in another point of view:

'The effect, which this revival of the trade will have upon the coast of Africa, will be horrible. Now, the African slave-dealers turn their attention to other pursuits; and the cruelty and murder connected with their wicked occupation, have greatly abated, or entirely ceased. A friendly intercourse with Europeans is increasing; and the inhabitants are beginning to feel the benefits of civilization.—Of what advantage can our forts and settlements be in civilizing the natives on one side of a river, (as Sierra Leone is situated,) when a French factory (as the island of Gambia will be) is situated on the other? And when its command of the river will encourage all those disgraceful practices considered necessary for procuring slaves, which at once degrade the natives and destroy their happiness.'

In what an aukward situation must we be, on the coast of Africa! How irritating it will be to see the French in possession of this traffic, to the exclusion of ourselves! They will be allowed to prosecute, without a competitor, a trade in which a British merchant cannot engage without being guilty of *felony!*

The writer replies with much ability to the arguments which have been urged in favour of this heart-rending measure; and he encourages a hope that, in consequence of the numerous petitions to Parliament against the renewal of the Slave-Trade, his Majesty's Ministers will use all their address with the French government to prevent its horrid commencement. By the Sixth Report of the African Institution, (the subject of the preceding article,) it will be found that our exertions for the abolition of the Slave-Trade have been far from effectual; and if the French are allowed to visit the coasts of Africa for the purpose of procuring negroes to be transported across the Atlantic, our splendid visions of the civilization of Africa will be visions indeed, and the miseries of the negro-race be indefinitely protracted!

Art. 26. *Some Inquiry into the Constitutional Character of the Queen-Consort of England.* 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1814.

A pamphlet that might boast of more finished style and more artful reasoning, than this Inquiry exhibits, has often fallen into our hands: but we have rarely met with one which contained a more clear, full, and honest statement of a very important question. The author contrives to stand on the best terms with his readers; no man will suspect him of playing the courtier; while, on the other hand, he steers equally clear of faction, and we are satisfied that it is the public interest which he has in view. Although the question which he pursues is raised by certain notorious disputes of the day, he conducts it in a candid and dispassionate manner: clearly shewing that, in the case of a demise of the sovereign, the constitution and the public weal indispensibly require that the new King and Queen should be crowned at the usual time, and in the usual manner. He contends that the precedent of deferring the Queen's coronation, in the reign of Henry VII. was a flagrant violation of the constitution, while the ultimate adoption of the ceremony proves its obligatory nature; and he successfully controverts the doctrine that the monarch has no adviser in his domestic concerns. Equally forcible are the observations by which he shews that a Queen-consort is legally and constitutionally, except in criminal transactions, a single woman; and he explains several usages of the constitution, which would otherwise be anomalous, by shewing that they refer to this doctrine.

It is also maintained that the coronation of a Queen-consort is a recognition, by the people, of the right of her children to succeed to the crown. Without going the length of laying this down as a legal proposition, we admit the usual effect of the ceremony to be, in this respect, as great as it is represented by the author; and we fully agree with him in thinking that a departure from the usual mode of observing it should not, on any account, be allowed.

Art. 27. *Recueil de Décrets, Ordonnances,* &c.; *i. e.* A Collection of Decrees, Orders, Treaties of Peace, Manifestoes, Proclamations, Speeches, &c. &c. of Napoleon Bonaparte, and of the Members of the French Government, from November 1799 to the Year 1812 inclusive. Extracted from the Moniteur, by Lewis Goldsmith, Notary. 8vo. 4 Vols. London. 1813.

No person, we believe, will rejoice more than Mr. Goldsmith that the reign of Napoleon has ceased, since the publication of these papers respecting his government; and though an equal interest in them will not now prevail, they will remain curious and valuable documents for consultation. Mr. G. before furnished us with a similar repository; which he has continued to the year 1812, and promises to resume, to the end, as it will now be, of the *imperial* sway. No comments are added by the editor to the papers themselves: which, as he observes, exhibit to the reader 'the system of French government with respect to legislation, interior administration, exterior policy, and the internal and external police which it exercises in France and in foreign states.'—A copious Index is very properly subjoined.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 28. *Letters to the Rev. John Pye Smith, D.D. on the Sacrifice of Christ;* occasioned by his Sermon, preached March 11. 1813, before the Patrons and Students of the Protestant Dissenting Academy at Homerton. By W. J. Fox. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson and Co.

Though calm inquiry and amicable discussion were virtues little cultivated by our old theologians, we are pleased to observe them coming into fashion with our modern religious disputants; who argue with more civility, and restrain if they do not quite suppress all feelings of irritation. On the strange doctrine of *Satisfaction*, we wished to hear two sensible friends fairly dispute; because such an *amica collatio* would soon shew how far it was or was not tenable. If Dr. Smith has not voluntarily undertaken to enter the lists of controversy with Mr. Fox, the latter, while he comments on the sermon of the former, treats him with great respect, and addresses him in these letters as one who is high in his esteem. So far, Mr. Fox cannot be suspected of any design of which Dr. Smith can disapprove; and the mode which he adopts, in replying to certain passages in the sermon, is calculated to do justice to the subject, by bringing into full view the insuperable difficulties which press on the commonly received doctrines of *the transfer of guilt*, and of *satisfaction made to Divine Justice*, by this process.

Mr. Fox, having been educated by Dr. Smith in the principles of Calvinism, enjoyed ample opportunities for thoroughly understanding it; and many prejudices must have been encountered, and much must he have examined and reflected, before he could have brought himself to reject it. We consider these letters, therefore, as of no little value in the controversy to which they relate. They prove the writer to have a good mind as well as a good understanding; and it appears to us that his arguments cannot be easily overturned. As the figurative language of Scripture, respecting sacrifices and atonements, is liable to be mistaken, it would be of great service to consider this matter, in the first instance, purely by the light of reason; because, if the doctrine asserted be impossible in the nature of things, or involves an absurdity, those portions of Scripture which are adduced in its favour must be misunderstood. Several passages in Mr. Fox's letters tend to this point. After having followed the preacher through the texts by which he would prove the satisfaction of Divine Justice by the death and sacrifice of Christ, Mr. F. states 'the inconsistencies connected with the doctrine of Satisfaction;' and, in his fourth letter, he observes to Dr. Smith that

> 'The first contradiction which offers itself to notice is that, on your system, God *pardons* and *punishes* the *very same offence*. Christ has borne the guilt and punishment of believers, and yet they are said to be forgiven. A debt is only once payable: a crime only once punishable. Let the principle of substitution be admitted; still the sinner cannot be required to suffer both in his surety and his own person. If another for him has discharged the debt, sustained the curse, he need not implore his deliverance of the mercy of God, but

may demand it from his justice. When a man tells me that God has forgiven his sins, and in the same breath that Christ endured, in his stead, the punishment of those sins, he makes two assertions, either of which may perhaps be correct, but which cannot both be true.'

We recommend the whole of this pamphlet to the consideration of the theological reader. We have not leisure regularly to follow the writer through each of his seven letters, but, as a farther specimen of the clearness of his conceptions, we shall quote his remarks on the transferable nature of vice and virtue.

'Your system also supposes the transferable nature of guilt and innocence. "Jesus Christ voluntarily sustained the *guilt* and punishment of sin." (P. 28.) "The active obedience of the Lord Christ is freely and graciously imputed to the pardoned sinner." (P. 56.) These assertions are alike opposed to reason and Scripture. In no place is Christ called guilty, nor are his sufferings ever termed a punishment. Nowhere is it said that the righteousness of Christ becomes the righteousness of those who believe in him. How can it possibly be indifferent to a lawgiver whether the transgressor suffer in his own person, or by a substitute? The desire of an innocent person to stand in the place of a guilty one does not make him deserving of punishment, nor can his suffering answer the object of punishment, whether we suppose that object to be the reformation of the individual, or the well-being of society.'

In the miscellaneous remarks, Mr. Fox calls Dr. Smith to task for an unguarded expression or two: but, in conclusion, he speaks in the handsomest terms of his late tutor, and bears the fullest testimony to his amiable and candid spirit.

Art. 29. *Two Discourses designed for the Use of Servants*, wherein their Duties are explained and enforced by Precepts and Examples drawn from the Holy Bible. 8vo. 1s. Spence.

Why is not the author's name prefixed to this useful and much-wanted publication? No class of the community stands in more need of a serious lecture than servants; and we were pleased to see two discourses addressed to their attention, which are very plain, and constructed on a judicious plan: the preacher having brought together, in one view, all the parts of Scripture which describe the situation and enforce the duties of servants. The doctrines here inculcated are compressed into the following passages:

'That the different ranks and employments of men are appointed by God: that He, with infinite wisdom, goodness, and power, places each of us in that situation, which is most calculated to promote our eternal salvation: that it is consequently our duty to be therewith content: that the true happiness of man consisteth not in the abundance of the things which he possesseth, but in the favour of God: that this favour is to be obtained equally by *high* and *low*, *rich* and *poor*, if we fear God and keep his commandments.—

'That the peculiar duties of servants are honesty, sobriety, fidelity, watchfulness, patience, diligence, and a constant desire to please their masters, and to promote their interest and happiness by every means in their power: that the pious discharge of these duties will not fail to secure to them the love and esteem of their masters, and of all good men, and the favour and blessing of God; peace and tranquillity at the hour of death, and a never-fading crown of glory in the world to come.'

It appears, from a short preface, that the horrid murder of Mr. and Mrs. Bonar by their man-servant led the preacher to the composition and publication of these discourses; which, we hope, will not only be read *to* servants, but read and considered *by* them.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In replying to Mr. Rootsey's communication, on the subject of his *New Notation of Music*, reviewed in our Number for May last, we shall begin with the concluding paragraph of it, and assure Mr. R. that we have no *interest* whatever in the old notation, or any other part of the subject; nor any attachment to it which does not arise from a fair opinion of its sufficiency for the purpose to which it is applied. When Mr. R. puts to us the propositions with which he closes his letter, it escaped him, perhaps, to observe that he begs the whole question. If his plan does not offer some substantial advantages, it is not of much consequence that by it music can be printed cheaper than it is at present; and, as to the greater facility of learning, that is a point which, as we stated, we can only concede to a certain extent: because, if simple melody, or even plain counterpoint, can be read more easily in the new mode of notation, (which we do not admit,) we still think that this will never be the case with music of a more complicated description.

With respect to one of our reasons for preferring the old notation, viz. because it presents the notes in the relation of *high* and *low*, we grant that those terms cannot be applied to the notes in precisely the same sense as they are to the staff; their use with reference to the former is metaphorical: but so it is when we speak of *high* and *low* numbers in arithmetic, of a *high* wind, of *high* life, of *low* company, and in many other instances. They are in fact generally applied to subjects admitting of gradation; and, in the present case, it does not strike us that any good is gained by substituting the terms *shrill* and *grave*, the latter of which is also metaphorical, and the former (to our apprehension at least) very unappropriate: since few people would consent to apply the term *shrill* to the beautiful liquid tones of the *upper* part of the voices of Mrs. Billington and Madame Catalani[*].

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[*] This reminds us of Guido's lines,

> " *Cæterum tonantis vocis*
> *Si ludent acumina,*
> *Superabit Philomela,*
> *Aut vocalis asina.*"

Freely translated (by Dr. Burney, we believe,) thus:

> " At shrillness if he only aim,
> The nightingale his strain may shame,
> And still more loud and deep the lay
> Which bulls can roar and asses bray."

Let any terms whatever be used, we think it is an advantage to have a notation which, by its effect on the eye, awakens the ideas of those terms; and into that proposition the whole of this part of the subject resolves itself.

Mr. Rootsey conceives that the use of the terms *high* and *low* has arisen from the notation, and not the notation from the terms. This seems to us to be of no importance to the argument: but, with respect to the fact which he states, 'that the contrivers of the notation placed those notes which were previously called high at the bottom of the staff, and those at the top which had been previously called low,' it is quite new to us, if it be meant to say that the *ascending* scale of tones was ever expressed by a *descending* scale of notation. It appears to us to be more material that the modern notation was introduced to supersede that which was previously in use; and which consisted of alphabetical letters bearing different denominations, but which was found inconvenient (just as we should have supposed that it would) when the science of music began to extend itself beyond the Canto Fermo of the monks. The invention has been commonly ascribed, but probably on insufficient grounds, to Guido, the monk of Arezzo; and its early adoption and subsequent continued use appear to us strong, though not conclusive, proofs in favour of its utility. That it would admit of improvement, we are ready to grant; indeed, the reduction of the lines of the staff to five, instead of the Italian staff which had ten lines, is an instance in point; though in that particular, we think, the improvement could not be carried farther; and we had rather, on the score of utility merely, see something done to effect as great an improvement with the least possible change, than be carried back quite to first principles, in order to accomplish an entire change of our practice. With a view to its philosophical accuracy as well as its ingenuity, Mr. Rootsey's plan seemed to us to deserve the favourable report which we gave of it in those respects; and we feel sure that his candour will excuse our differing from him as to its other advantages.

We have to apologize to our readers for this long replication, which we must yet extend farther in order to give Mr. Rootsey an opportunity of explaining himself as to the mode of expressing the value of notes, on which subject an error of the press (as it appears) misled us in reviewing his work. — He says:

> "I was exceedingly sorry to find that I was misunderstood upon the subject of the value of notes in a bar, because I ground my principal claim to attention upon the precision of my method. An unfortunate error of the press appears to have occasioned this misunderstanding. In the passage cited by you the time is triple, and the measure consists of four notes, which should have been arranged into three times, and omitting the parenthesis they should have stood thus, n m hm; in my copy, the two first of these notes are joined instead of being separated, and in yours the two last are separated instead of being joined. It may be proper for me to observe that always, in writing music, before I put the parenthesis, I take care to have the times of the measure properly separated, and I afterwards insert them so that they may not render the times of the measure inconspicuous; but, in printing, the too great curvature of the types used for a

parenthesis, occasions some inconvenience which might very easily be remedied.

"When I first considered of the application of all the letters in the alphabet and their order to the purpose of musical notation, it became necessary for me to devise a method of expressing accurately the value or relative duration of the notes. This I first effected principally by figures over several of them, and in this stage I sent it to Mr. Nicholson, who mentions in his Journal, Vol. xxiv. page 153. the cause of its not appearing in that work. It afterwards occurred to me that the most scientific plan would be to supersede all characters for this purpose, by arranging the notes in every measure into times. I am informed that Earl Stanhope, who takes such lively interest in the promotion of the arts, has paid much attention to this subject; and from some of his papers which I have seen, his Lordship's method appears to be coincident with mine, as I presented it to Mr. Nicholson, in the circumstance of expressing the duration by characters in a separate line from the letters. It was from this consideration that I felt myself obliged to mention wherein the novelty of my plan chiefly consisted, not that I conceived its novelty to be an advantage, or that the plan was to be judged of by any other standard than its utility. In what manner I have expressed the absolute and the relative duration of each note, you have not explained in your sketch, and this I consider as the most important part of my notation.

"How I have connected notes of different denominations will appear from example 28. at the syllable *twine*, where a tie, or a parenthesis, embraces notes of different denominations; for if each time be equal to a crotchet, h will be a crotchet, and g and k two quavers. In the 23d measure of example 27, and in the 4th of example 2, I have shewn how I express semiquavers coming after a pricked crotchet. In the first case, r, because it stands before a note which bears a dot over it, is protracted half its length and rendered equal to three quavers, and the remaining notes ṫṗ become each equal to a semiquaver, to make up the rest of the measure."

We must not conclude without noticing an erratum in our article to which this note refers. In page 91. line 10. the expression should have been, "and the bass notes, *or, more properly speaking*, the notes below middle C," &c.: but, in printing, the words in italics were misplaced in the subsequent lines, owing to an intricate interlineation in the MS.

It will give us real pleasure to comply with the wishes of 'A Steady Old Friend,' at the first opportunity.

M. B. will find an account of the object of his sollicitude in our next Appendix, if our intentions can be fulfilled.

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THE

ONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1814.

RT. I. *A Journey through Albania*, and other Provinces of Turkey in Europe and Asia, to Constantinople, during the Years 1809 and 1810. By J. C. Hobhouse. Second Edition. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 1168. 5l. 5s. Boards. Cawthorne. 1813.

VE have in these volumes another example of the effect of the late system of exclusion from France and Italy, in ecting the researches of our countrymen to the shores of eece. Amid the endless variety of new publications which l for the attention of reviewers, we have been obliged to lay our notice of Mr. Hobhouse's work; a circumstance ich we should regret, had it not given us the advantage examining it in the improved shape of a second edition. r. H. took an extensive survey of the classic territory, and velled in company with Lord Byron; whose prolific muse s of late rendered our fair countrywomen so familiar with manners and scenery of the Levant. These considerations itle his journal to a notice of some length, notwith-nding the frequency of late publications on the subject, and promise of a comprehensive performance of a similar de-iption under the superintendance of Mr. Walpole. — The ding objects of Mr. H.'s observations were Albania, Attica, Troad, and Constantinople, to each of which we shall give ention in its turn; bestowing, however, a larger portion of space on the first-mentioned articles, the Troad having eady been a topic of ample discussion, and the wonders Constantinople having been lately brought before our readers our notice of Dr. Clarke's Travels.

Mr. Hobhouse's narrative begins in September 1809, at ich time Lord Byron and he set sail from Malta, and pro-ded to the shores of Greece. Being on board a brig of war, ich convoyed a fleet of small merchantmen to Patras, the th-west part of the Peloponnesus was the portion of ecian territory that first attracted their observation. Cepha-ia appeared a chain of high rocks to the north, and Zante vel island to the south; while, in front, their attention was d on the high mountains of Albania and the Morea; and the freshness of the green plantations of currant-trees afforded a delightful relief to eyes accustomed to the white waste of Malta. After having passed near Ithaca, and viewed, in their progress northward, the far-famed Leucadian precipice, the voyagers anchored off Prevesa, a southern port in Albania, and commenced their tour on the main-land. An apology is made *in limine* (pp. 5, 6, 7.) for a want of precision in explaining the course of rivers, the direction of the mountains, and the relative position of the antient and modern cities of Epirus. That country was never accurately described by either the Greek or Roman writers, and its frequent change of masters led unavoidably to a perplexing change of names. Strabo avows his inability to specify the limits of the different Epirote tribes; and Ptolemy takes perhaps an unauthorized liberty, when he includes Acarnania and Amphilochia within the boundary of Epirus. M. D'Anville frankly confessed his want of information on this topic; and Mr. Gibbon declared that we are nearly as much acquainted with the nature of the territory in question as with the wilds of North America. To expect such a thing as a map among the Turks would be idle, as they are accustomed to ridicule all statistical calculations.

Having described Prevesa, and the adjacent ruins of Nicopolis, Mr. H. proceeds to give an account of the town of Arta, situated inland near the gulf of that name. It was a place of consequence until Ali Pacha made Ioannina the seat of government, and ruled Arta by a dependent under the title of Aga. Mr. H. does not incline to the opinion that Arta is the antient Ambracia, or that the river on which it stands is the antient Aracthos. — Holding a northward course from Arta, the travellers reached, on the second day, Ioannina, a city containing not fewer than 40,000 inhabitants, and standing on the western bank of the lake to which M. Pouqueville would give the name of Acherusian.

‘ The houses are, many of them, large and well-built, containing a court-yard, and having warehouses or stables on the ground, with an open gallery and the apartments of the family above. A flight of wooden steps under cover of the pent of the gallery connects the under and upper part of the houses. Though they have but a gloomy appearance from the street, having the windows very small, and latticed with cross bars of wood, and presenting the inhospitable show of large folding doors, big enough to admit the horses and cattle of the family, but never left open, yet the yard, which is often furnished with orange and lemon trees, and in the best houses communicates with a garden, makes them very lively from within, and the galleries are sufficiently extensive to allow a scope for walking in rainy weather.

'The Bazar, or principal street, inhabited by the tradesmen, is well furnished, and has a showy appearance. The Bizestein, or covered Bazar, is of considerable size, and would put you in mind, as may be observed of all these places, of Exeter-'Change.'—

'The Christians of Ioannina, though inhabiting a part of Albania, and governed by Albanian masters, call themselves Greeks, as do the inhabitants of Arta, Prevesa, and even of many villages higher up in the country: they neither wear the Albanian dress, nor speak the Albanian language, and they partake also in every particular of the manners and customs of the Greeks of the Morea, Roumelia, and the other christian parts of Turkey in Europe and Asia.—They appear a distinct race from the inhabitants of the mountains, and perhaps are sprung from ancient settlers, who may have retired, from time to time, before the successive conquerors of Peloponnesus and Greece, into a country where, although enslaved, they were less exposed to perpetual ravages and to a frequent change of masters.—

'The Greeks of Ioannina are, with the exception of the priests, and of some few who are in the employments of the Pasha, all engaged in trade; and many of the better sort pass three or four years in the merchant-houses of Trieste, Genoa, Leghorn, Venice, and Vienna, which, in addition to the education they receive in the schools of their own city, where they may learn French and Italian, gives them a competent knowledge of the most diffused modern languages, and adds also to the ease and urbanity of their address.—

'There is a fair which lasts a fortnight, held once a year on the plain, a mile and a half to the south-east of the city; and during this time all the tradesmen are obliged to leave their shops in the Bazar and Bizestein, which are shut, and to set up booths in the plain. This the Vizier finds a very good method of getting at some knowledge of the actual property of his subjects. The fair was held during our residence in the city, and opened on the 8th of October, when we passed through it on horseback.'—

'Cloth of French and German manufacture is sent from Leipsig. This is the chief article of importation, as it is from this fair that all the richer Greeks and Turks, not only in Albania, but in great part of Roumelia and in the Morea, supply themselves with the loose robes and pelisses of their winter dress. English cloth is in the highest estimation, but seldom to be met with here, or even at Smyrna and Constantinople, on account of its great price. The best of the cloth sold at Ioannina was not equal to the worst of that manufactured in England, and was of a coarse thin texture, and very badly dyed.

'The articles of exportation are, oil, wool, corn, and tobacco, for the ports of the Adriatic and Naples; and, for inland circulation through Albania and Roumelia, spun cottons from the plains of Triccala, stocks of guns and pistols mounted in chased silver, both plain and gilt, and also embroidered velvets, stuffs, and cloths, which are here better wrought than in any other part of Turkey in Europe.

'Large flocks of sheep and goats, and droves of cattle and horses, are collected from the hills both of Lower and Upper Albania for the fair. Of these, all but the horses, which are dispersed in the country, are sold into the Ionian islands.'

From Ioannina, the course of the travellers was directed northwards to the town of Tepellenè; where they found Ali Pacha engaged in the bustle of military movements, and about to extend his territory by incorporating into it the possessions of a neighbouring prince. During their journey, they had ample opportunity of observing that the Albanians devolve on their women a number of toilsome and degrading offices. The aged matron and the tender maiden are seen fetching water from the distant fountain, and labouring under the weight of their large pitchers, one of which they carry on the head, the other in the hand.—On arriving at head-quarters, the travellers were received with attention by the officers of the Pacha, and were formally introduced to him on the next day.

'The Vizier was a short man, about five feet five inches in height, and very fat, though not particularly corpulent. He had a very pleasing face, fair and round, with blue quick eyes, not at all settled into a Turkish gravity. His beard was long and white, and such a one as any other Turk would have been proud of; though he, who was more taken up with his guests than himself, did not continue looking at it, nor smelling and stroking it, as is usually the custom of his countrymen, to fill up the pauses of conversation. He was not very magnificently dressed, except that his high turban, composed of many small rolls, seemed of fine gold muslin, and his attaghan, or long dagger, was studded with brilliants.

'He was mightily civil; and said he considered us as his children. He showed us a mountain howitzer, which was lying in his apartment, and took the opportunity of telling us that he had several large cannon. He turned round two or three times to look through an English telescope, and at last handed it to us, that we might look at a party of Turks on horseback riding along the banks of the river towards Tepellenè. He then said, "that man whom you see on the road is the chief minister of my enemy, Ibrahim Pasha, and he is now coming over to me, having deserted his master to take the stronger side." He addressed this with a smile to the Secretary, desiring him to interpret it to us.

'We took pipes, coffee, and sweetmeats, with him; but he did not seem so particular about these things as other Turks whom we have seen. He was in great good humour, and several times laughed aloud, which is very uncommon in a man of consequence: I never saw another instance of it in Turkey.—

'There are no common topics of discourse between a Turkish Vizier and a traveller, which can discover the abilities of either party, especially as these conversations are always in the form of question and answer. However, a Frank may think his Turk above the common run, if his host does not put any very foolish interrogatories to him, and Ali did not ask us any questions that betrayed his ignorance. His liveliness and ease gave us very favourable impressions of his natural capacity.

'In the evening of the next day we paid the Vizier another visit, in an apartment more elegantly furnished than the one with the fountain. Whilst we were with him, a messenger came in from "Berat," the place which Ali's army (of about five thousand men) was then besieging. We were not acquainted with the contents of a letter, which was read aloud, until a long gun, looking like a duck-gun, was brought into the room; and then, upon one of us asking the Secretary if there were many wild fowl in the neighbourhood, he answered, Yes; but that, for the gun, it was going to the siege of Berat, there being a want of ordnance in the Vizier's army. It was impossible not to smile at this war in miniature.'—

'He asked us, what had made us travel in Albania? We told him the desire of seeing so great a man as himself. "Aye," returned he, "did you ever hear of me in England?" We, of course, assured him, that he was a very common subject of conversation in our country; and he seemed by no means inaccessible to the flattery.'

This singular character was at that time about sixty years of age; and, though born of a family of some consequence, he owed his acquisition of power altogether to his own exertions. Having made himself master first of one village, then of another, he collected together a considerable body of Albanians, whom he paid, according to the common practice, by plunder. After having acted for many years as one of those independent freebooters, of whom so many are to be found in the Turkish empire, he at last obtained money enough to buy an inferior Pachalik, and elevated himself by the progressive operation of force and artifice to his present situation. He subsequently contrived to obtain Pachaliks for both his sons; one of whom, named Veli, is Pacha of the Morea. Unprincipled as his career has been, he has succeeded in clearing his dominions from those bands of robbers who formerly laid both inhabitants and travellers under an indiscriminate contribution: but the neighbouring territory continues in the most disturbed state. His regular force is generally about eight thousand men: but, as every Albanian is familiar with the use of the gun and the sabre, and firmly attached to his ruler, any attempt, on the part of a foreign enemy, to conquer the country, would be extremely hazardous. Throughout the whole of this territory, the Imperial firman is little respected, while the signature of the Pacha commands unlimited obedience. His revenue arises from a number of villages, which are considered as his own property, as well as from various towns and districts which are forced to pay him for protection; altogether, it exceeds half a million sterling, a sum of great importance in that country.

When they took leave, the travellers received from the Pacha a letter to his officers in the quarter whither they intended to proceed, of which a fac-simile is inserted towards the end of the work; and, as the running hand of a modern Greek is almost unintelligible except to a practised reader, Mr. H. has given (p. 1151.) a copy of the letter in the usual character, each line corresponding with the fac-simile. His readers will, no doubt, be gratified on finding such an approximation to the classic language, in a composition which is not put together with care in the closet, but which expresses the current diction of those barbarians.

With respect to the national character of the Albanians, Mr. Hobhouse, without launching into the effusions of Pouqueville, describes them as men of great spirit and activity. Their stature is of the middle size, their chests are full and broad, their eyes lively, and their posture is upright. Their women are tall, hardy, and not ill looking, but bear in their countenance the decisive tokens of penury and hard labour. The men always go armed, having a pistol in their belt, and frequently a curved sabre at their side. The peasants carry a long gun when tending their flocks, and often when tilling their land, so much have the unsettled habits of the country impressed on the whole population the necessity of defence. The Albanian dress, when new and clean, is not inelegant, but the clothes commonly worn are of a coarse and dirty appearance. Their dwellings have generally two apartments, one of which is the place of depositing their maize and grapes. In point of diet, the people are usually temperate, and save their money with a view to the purchase of arms and trinkets.

On leaving Albania, Mr. H. proceeded, under the protection of a guard, through the antient Acarnania, and passed the Acheloüs, (now the Aspro,) the largest of the Grecian rivers. After having crossed over to Patras, he and his noble friend returned to the northern side of the gulf, and held their course by Parnassus to Livadia, Chæronæa, Orchomenos, and Thebes; visiting, by the way, the ruins of Delphi and the Castalian spring. The places honoured with these high-sounding names afford, however, in their present condition, very little to animate the enthusiasm of an admirer of the classics. The towns and villages in most parts of Greece are insignificant beyond description;

scription; the streams are mere rivulets; and disappointment is experienced in every thing except in the beauty of some parts of the scenery, and the grandeur of others. On the rugged surface of Delphi, it was in vain to look for ground fitted for the site of a town of magnitude: but the difficulty of access sufficiently pointed it out as a safe place for depositing treasures. Though Delphi was often plundered, yet, when due precautions were taken, we find from history that the invaders, whether Persians or Gauls, were repulsed, and taught to reverence the sanctity of the spot. One only of the master-pieces which adorned Delphi is now in preservation, but it is a relic of the highest importance:

> ' The triple-twisted serpentine column of brass, whose three heads supported the tripod dedicated by the Greeks, after the battle of Platæa, to Apollo, is still to be seen, though mutilated, in the spot to which it was conveyed from Delphi by Constantine, to adorn the hippodrome of his new capital. The column, as much of it as is seen above ground, is now about seven feet in height, and of a proportionate thickness. It is hollow, and the cavity has by the Turks been filled up with stones.'

Bœotia is remarkably destitute of antient remains, and the traveller who makes a progress through it will find little on the spot to assist his conjectures. The following particulars afford a striking example of the frailty of human affairs in the case of the city which, under Epaminondas and Pelopidas, exercised such distinguished influence over the Grecian community:

> ' Thebes has been in a manner blotted out of the page of history, since the last battle of Chæronéa between Sylla and Taxilus. In the time of Strabo it had the appearance of a village, which was the case with all the other Bœotian cities, except Tanagra and Thespiæ. Onchestus, Haliartus, Coronea, and other towns, once of considerable magnitude, were almost in ruins, and hastening fast to decay. In the second century, the whole of the lower town, except the temples, had fallen to the ground, and the citadel alone, no longer called Cadméa but Thebes, now continued to be inhabited. It never appears to have recovered its importance under the Emperors.—It is now a very poor town, containing about five hundred houses, mostly of wood, and inhabited chiefly by Turks. It has two moscks and four churches. We slept two nights in the town, and were lodged in the house of a Greek bishop. There is nothing worthy of notice in this place; though a public clock, certainly without a rival in this part of Turkey, is considered by the people of the place and pointed out to travellers as a great curiosity.'—
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> ' The stream of the Ismenus has been much diminished, by the means taken to make part of its waters flow in an artificial channel, for the sake of turning an overshot-mill about a hundred paces below the fountain. We stepped across it with ease, and, had we walked through it, should not have been wet above the ankles.'—

'We had some difficulty in procuring horses at Thebes, as we were not provided with a travelling firman from the Porte, and as we had now left the dominions of our patron Ali, and were in the territory of Bekir, Pasha of the Negroponte. We at last, however, accomplished this point, and set out late in the day for Athens.

'The road took us across the rivulet in the ravin, and near the tepid fountain, which we left to the right, and proceeded for two hours over a plain to the south-east, well cultivated, but without a single tree. We then crossed the Asopus, a small stream, at a bridge called Metropolita, in the site nearly of Erythræ, whence the troops of Mardonius were encamped, along the banks of the river, as far as Hysiæ, on the confines of the Platæan territory, and near which the Greek forces were also stationed when Masistius was killed by the Athenian horse. We here found ourselves at once in another kind of country; for the soil, which had been before rich and deep, was now rocky and light, and we began to scale low stony hills, going to the south-south-east for three hours. We passed a small marshy plain, and then ascended a zigzag path on a rock, which is a low ridge of Mount Elatias, or Cithæron. When we got to the top we had the ruins of a small tower on a crag to our left. Descending a little, we came at once upon a green plain, about four miles in length and two in breadth, running from west to east. On entering this plain, we left on our right hand a small village, with a church of some size, and proceeded eastward for an hour, when we arrived at a most miserable and half-deserted village, called Scourta.

'Here we passed our Christmas Eve, in the worst hovel of which we had ever been inmates. The cows and pigs occupied the lower part of the chamber, where there were racks and mangers and other appurtenances of a stable, and we were put in possession of the upper quarter. We were almost suffocated with the smoke, a common calamity in Greek cottages, in which the fire is generally made in the middle of the room, and the roof, having no aperture, was covered with large flakes of soot, that sometimes showered down upon us during the night.'

The hardships of travelling, however, are amply compensated on arriving at Athens, where a foreigner discovers an agreeable change in the aspect of all around him. Personal safety is here complete; and the Turk appears to lose his repulsive look, and to assume in some measure the character of humanity and affability. Lord Byron and Mr. H. remained between two and three months in the metropolis of Attica, and had thus an ample opportunity of examining the remains of antient art which exist in it to an extent that is really surprizing after the lapse of two thousand years. Athens stands at the foot of the rock of the citadel, and contains about 1300 houses, surrounded by a wall, which, as it comprehends gardens and corn-grounds, is nearly three miles in circuit. The houses are small and badly built;

while the streets, notwithstanding the Homeric epithet of εὐρυάγυια, are all narrow and irregular. Several of them have a raised causeway on both sides, so broad as to contract the middle of the street into a kind of dirty gutter. The trade of Athens consists in exporting the produce of the neighbouring territory, particularly oil, and receiving corn in return, with manufactured goods from Italy, and of late years from England. Several families of Franks are settled here, and have intermarried with the Greeks; and it is among these families that a stranger will find the most agreeable society, the character of the natives falling considerably below the impression excited by a remembrance of the days of Themistocles and Aristides. Though the oppression of the Turkish government is less felt here than in other places, great irregularity and vexatious exaction still prevail:

'The murmurs of the commonalty have frequently broken out into open complaints; and even a complete revolution, involving the destruction of the Archons, and an establishment of a better order of things, has been meditated by the more daring and ambitious amongst the oppressed. An unfortunate malcontent, who, in fond recollection of better days, has given to his three sons the names of Miltiades, Themistocles, and Alcibiades, talked to me of this glorious project (τὸ καλὸ πράγμα). "The Turks," said he, "will be on our side, if we get the better; but alas! the influence of money is all-powerful; and Demosthenes himself, were he alive, and (like me) without a para, would not have a single listener." He added besides, that their priests, a powerful body, would espouse the cause of their Codja-bashees.'—

'Some of the Athenians are fond of tracing back their pedigree, which, however, according to their own account, they are unable to do beyond the Turkish conquest. The name Chalcocondyles was, till lately, the one held in the greatest repute; but the person who at present professes himself to be, on his mother's side, a descendant of the family, has not assumed the appellation. The character of the modern inhabitants of this town does not rank high amongst their countrymen; and the proverb which is to be seen in Gibbon, I heard quoted against them in their own city—"As bad as the Turks of Negropont, the Jews of Salonica, and the Greeks of Athens." A French resident, who had lived amongst them many years, talking to me of their propensity to calumniate and supplant each other, concluded with this lively expression, "Believe me, my dear Sir, they are the same canaille as they were in the days of Miltiades."

'We were not amongst them long enough to discover any very unamiable traits by which they may be distinguished from other Greeks, though I think we saw in them a propensity to detraction and intrigue. Whatever may be their talents this way, they are now chiefly employed in debating whether the French or English, nations inhabiting countries unknown to their ancestors, shall deprive them of the last memorials of their ancient glory. To retain them themselves never, I believe, is an object of their wishes.'—

'Until within a few years, a journey to Athens was reckoned a considerable undertaking, fraught with difficulties and dangers; and at the period when every young man of fortune, in France and England, considered it an indispensable part of his education to survey the monuments of ancient art remaining in Italy, only a few desperate scholars and artists ventured to trust themselves amongst the barbarians, to contemplate the ruins of Greece.

'But these terrors, which a person who has been on the spot cannot conceive could ever have been well-founded, seem at last to be dispelled: Attica at present swarms with travellers, and several of our fair country-women have ascended the rocks of the Acropolis. So great, indeed, has been the increase of visitants, that the city, according to a scheme formed by a Greek who was once in our service, will soon be provided with a tavern, a novelty surely never before witnessed at Athens.'

The author and his companion made it a rule to devote a portion of each day of their residence at Athens to the inspection of the monuments of antiquity. The temple of Theseus, the best preserved of antient edifices, was within a few minutes' walk of their residence. Its length is a hundred and ten feet, and its width forty-five, a size too limited to impress the spectator at first: but the transient disappointment never fails to be succeeded by admiration on examining the beautiful proportions of the building. Its roof is supported by thirty-four columns, all of the finest Parian marble, the sculpture on which is in general in good preservation. It stands on a knoll of open ground between two and three hundred yards from the town. The Areopagus is a very uneven elevation, consisting of two rocky eminences, and is within a stone's throw of the craggy sides of the Acropolis. 'We must be cautious,' says Mr. H., 'of attaching an important signification to the words "hill, valley, or rock," when applied to Athens or its vicinity; for, although the landscape there presented to us is among the most lovely in the world, it is a landscape in miniature, and by no means correspondent to the notions excited by the exploits of antiquity.' In truth, we meet throughout these volumes with repeated hints of the diminutiveness of the Grecian territories and cities;—hints which, on the part of a writer evidently averse to undervalue the antients, possess a decided claim to the attention of the impartial inquirer. The habit of reckoning distances by stadia has a tendency to conceal from the reader of Grecian history the insignificant extent of many of their districts. A traveller who is unincumbered with baggage may easily make the tour of Bœotia in a couple of days; and he may ride from Livadia to Thebes, and back again, between breakfast and dinner. The Athenian Generals were sworn to invade the territories of Megara twice in a-year; an exploit which any horseman may perform in the course of a few hours, since the distance, by the longest computation, is only twenty-seven miles.

Mr. H. had an opportunity of visiting the fields of battle both of Marathon and Platæa. In the former, he saw nothing, as far as the nature of the ground is concerned, to contradict the assertion of Herodotus that the Persian force exceeded a hundred thousand men: but, when speaking of Platæa, his opinion is different:

> 'Notwithstanding the circumstantial account and the particular enumeration of the forces of the two nations engaged in the battle, given by Herodotus, no traveller who has seen the scene of action, which is to this day recognizable by most undoubted signs, can fail to suspect the Grecian historian of some exaggeration. The whole conflict must have taken place on a triangular space, bounded by the road from Thebes into the pass of Cithæron, five miles, the base of Cithæron, three miles, and the road from Platæa to Thebes, six miles. The Greeks were one hundred and ten thousand men; the Persians, with their confederates, three hundred and fifty thousand. But the most severe part of the action, and in which, reckoning both Lacedemonians and Persians, nearly three hundred and fifty thousand troops were engaged, was fought on the ravin, in marshy steep ground amongst the hills, where, notwithstanding the account informs us that the cavalry of Mardonius were the most active, it seems difficult to believe that a single squadron of horse could have manœuvred.
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> 'From Gargaphia to the Molois is but little more than a mile, and, according to the historian, the whole of this immense body fought in less than that space, for Mardonius advanced into the hills to encounter Pausanias. I should suppose that such an extent of ground would not contain such numbers, although ranged in the deepest order of which the ancient tactics allowed; and the Persians did not advance in any order at all, but confusedly. The fifty thousand allies of Mardonius and the Athenians might have fought in the plain between the Asopus and the foot of the hill, which, however, according to modern tactics, would not admit of even that number of troops to engage.'

Chæronæa appears to have been situated on a hill near the north-east base of Parnassus; and the fatal plain lies to the north, extending in length from east to west. 'No spot in the world,' says Mr. H., 'can be better calculated for deciding a national quarrel, since there does not appear to be even a molehill to impede the manœuvres of hostile armies.' The remains of the town are very insignificant. A similar remark applies to the vestiges of Megara; where, however, a population of three thousand inhabitants still exists; but their dwellings are built of mud with low flat roofs. Eleusis is now a miserable village of thirty mud cottages, but finely situated on the declivity of a long hill, with sufficient remains to make it probable that a great part of the hill was originally occupied by buildings. As to the Piræus, nothing in its present appearance would lead a person to imagine that it had ever been a harbour of consequence. It has lost the aspect of a triple port, the recess on the right being like a marsh, while that on the left is of little depth. The deepest water is at the mouth of the third interior port; yet one of our sloops of war was warned that she would run aground if she endeavoured to get in, and was accordingly obliged to anchor in the straits between Salamis and the part once called Phoron.

Corfu has been rendered by the French a place of great strength; and the distance from Italy or Albania is so short as in a manner to put a blockade out of the question. As a siege of the town by land would require a large force, Bonaparte could scarcely have fixed on a station of more importance for the views which, in his days of sanguine calculation, he entertained against the Turkish empire. — Patras stands in a beautiful country on the declivity of a mountain, but is frequently visited with agues and contagious fevers.—The table of a Greek of rank living in this quarter is thus described:

> 'The meat was stewed to rags. They cut up a hare into pieces to roast. I do not recollect that any of the flesh dishes were boiled. The pastry was not good, being sweetened with honey, and not well baked; but the thick ewes' milk, mixed with rice and preserves, and garnished with almonds, was very palatable. The boutaraga, caviar, and macaroni powdered with scraped cheese, were good dishes. But the vegetables and fruits, some of which the luxuriant soil furnishes without culture, were indeed delicious, and in great variety. There were cabbages, cauliflowers, spinach, artichokes, lettuces, and cellery, in abundance; but the want of potatoes was supplied by a root tasting like sea-cale. The fruits, which were served up at the conclusion of the dinner, and before the cloth was removed, were oranges, olives, pears, quinces, pomegranates, citrons, medlars, and nuts, and lastly, the finest melons we ever tasted.'

At the time of Mr. H.'s visit to Athens, there appeared something like a revival of the antient factions on the subject of the removal of a part of the relics by Lord Elgin. We were curious to see in what light the author would view this proceeding: but we found ourselves, on this as on other occasions, not a little perplexed to arrive at a knowlege of his opinion; it being not uncommon to perceive in these costly volumes the substance of a grave paragraph in one letter contradicted with equal gravity in the next. A long note is allotted (p. 35.) to the discussion of this question, and terminates apparently with an extenuation of Lord Elgin's conduct.

Having appropriated his first volume to Greece, Mr. Hobhouse proceeds, in his second, to Asia Minor; and, having described Smyrna and the ruins of Ephesus, he devotes a considerable space to the Troad. Though he does not venture to rank himself under the banners of Mr. Bryant, or to incur the odium attached to incredulity with respect to Homeric descriptions, it is obvious that he entered on the examination without much hope of finding the scenery of the Iliad recalled by the evidence of ocular observation; and he confined his anticipations to the discovery of a resemblance between the present scenery and the descriptions of Strabo, a calculation too moderate to be exposed to disappointment. Those, however, who are still desirous of weighing the assertions of Le Chevalier and the arguments of Bryant, will find in the minuteness of the topical descriptions of Mr. H.'s book a considerable stock of materials for the examination. He has inserted (p. 688.) a map of the eastern half of the Hellespont, and has exhibited with sufficient clearness the course of the Scamander, the site of Alexandria Troas, the tumuli adjacent to the Scamander, the mountains of Ida, and the different streams in which travellers have respectively endeavoured to trace the antient Simois. — The theory of Dr. Clarke shares no better fate than that of his predecessors, Mr. H. considering it as very unlikely that the Callifatti, a small and almost stagnant rivulet, should be the representative of the Simois. Dr. C.'s favourite ϑρωσμὸς πεδίοιο fares equally ill (p. 756.) in the hands of this inquirer. — Leaving these mysterious topics, we proceed to extract Mr. H.'s observations on the personal appearance of the modern Greeks:

> ' It cannot appear at all surprising, that in their habits of life the modern Greeks should very much resemble the picture that has been transmitted to us of the ancient illustrious inhabitants of their country. Living on the fruits of the same soil, and under the same climate, apparently not changed since the earliest ages, it would be strange if their physical constitutions, and in some measure their tempers, were not very similar to those of the great people whom we call their ancestors; and, in fact, I take their bodily appearance, their dress, their diet, and, as I said before, their tempers, to differ but little from those of the ancient Greeks.
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> ' There is a national likeness observable in all the Greeks, though, on the whole, the islanders are darker, and of a stronger make than those on the main-land. Their faces are just such as served for models to the ancient sculptors, and their young men in particular, are of that perfect beauty, which we should perhaps consider too soft and effeminate in those of that age in our more northern climate,

climate. Their eyes are large and dark, from which circumstance Mavromati, or Black-eyes, is a very common surname; their eyebrows are arched; their complexions are rather brown, but quite clear; and their cheeks and lips are tinged with a bright vermilion. The oval of their faces is regular, and all their features in perfect proportion, except that their ears are rather larger than ordinary: their hair is dark and long, but sometimes quite bushy, and, as they shave off all of it which grows on the fore-part of the crown and the side of the face, not at all becoming: some of the better sort cut off all their hair, except a few locks twisted into a knot on the top of the head. On their upper lips they wear a thin long mustachio, which they are at some pains to keep quite black. Beards are worn only by the clergy and the Archontes Presbuteroi, or Codja-bashees, and other men of authority. Their necks are long, but broad and firmly set, their chests wide and expanded, their shoulders strong, but round the waist they are rather slender. Their legs are perhaps larger than those of people accustomed to tighter garments, but are strong and well made. Their stature is above the middling size, and their make muscular but not brawny, round and well filled out, but not inclined to corpulency.

'Both the face and the form of the women are very inferior to those of the men. Though they have the same kind of features, their eyes are too languid, and their complexions too pale, and, even from the age of twelve, they have a flaccidity and looseness of person which is far from agreeable. They are generally below the height which we are accustomed to think becoming in a female, and when a little advanced in life, between twenty-five and thirty years of age, are commonly rather fat and unwieldy.'—

'The dress of the Greeks is not at the first sight to be much distinguished from that of the Turks, nor is there any difference in the habit of those in power, except that, instead of the turban, the head is covered with an immense calpac. A cotton shirt, made like a woman's chemise, cotton drawers, a vest and jacket of silk or stuff, a pair of large loose brogues, or trowsers, drawn up a little above the ancle, and a short sock, make the inner part of the dress: the part of the garment next added is a long broad shawl, often highly worked, and very expensive, wrapped in wide folds round the loins. In one corner of this girdle the poorer people, especially in travelling, both Turks and Greeks, conceal their money, and then widen the shawl round them. A common fellow in Turkey might, as properly as the soldier in Horace, talk of the loss of his zone as of that of his money; but the better sort of people have adopted the use of purses, which, together with their handkerchiefs, watches, and snuff-boxes, they carry in the bosom, between the folds of their vests.'—

'In the inland towns, and even at Athens, the Greeks seldom admit a male stranger to a sight of the females of their families, who live in a separate part of the house, and in some cases are as closely confined as the Turkish women. Before marriage, they are rarely, sometimes never, seen by any male excepting those of their own family, but afterwards enjoy the privilege of being introduced to people of their own nation, and to travellers. A young lady, the sister of Signor Nicolo, at Ioannina, to whom we had made a present of some Venetian silks, sent word to us, that she regretted, that not being married, she could not kiss our hands in person, but begged that it might be done by proxy by our dragoman, who brought the message. We did not obtain a sight of her during our stay in the house.—

'A few friends, and perhaps a Frank stranger, are sometimes invited to the first public ceremony in which the young girl is concerned, that is, her betrothing to her future husband, who generally has never seen her; and we ourselves were once asked to a supper where there was music and dancing on an occasion of this kind. The girl, (called ἡ νύμφη,) was sitting in the middle of the sofa, covered with paint and patches, having a sort of crown on her head, and stuck round with jewels and gold chains on every part of her dress. We were regularly led up and presented to her, as were the other guests, and she kissed our hands. Her own female relations, and those of her future husband, were sitting on the rest of the sofa. The mother of the young man, who was not present himself, put a ring on the finger of the maiden, and, as her son's proxy, kissed her cheek, a ceremony by which the betrothing takes place. The marriage, we were told, would not take place perhaps for more than a year, as the youth was engaged in trade, at some distance, until he could amass a fortune competent to maintain his wife.'—

'There are very few instances of second marriages amongst the Greeks, nor of any man, except a priest, remaining single for life.

'The women can seldom read or write, but are all of them able to embroider very tastefully, and can generally play on the Greek lute, or rebeck. Their dancing they learn without a master, from their companions. The dance, called Χόρος, and for distinction, Romaïca, consists generally in slow movements, the young women holding by each other's handkerchiefs, and the leader setting the step and time, in the same manner as in the Albanian dance.'

Mr. H. has devoted a chapter to the interesting question of the state of literature among the modern Greeks. He has inserted (p. 560.) a list of one hundred persons who flourished between the years 1570 and 1720, and who, though unknown in this country, have been deemed worthy by Demetrius Procopius of being commemorated as learned men. They were chiefly theologians educated in Italy, and were accounted prodigies by their countrymen from being able to read the antient Greek. The more intimate connection, which of late years has taken place between the polished part of Europe and the Levant, has had a visible effect in lessening the general ignorance of the Greeks; and Leghorn, Venice, Vienna, Paris, all contain young Greeks who have repaired thither in search of that education which their own country cannot afford. The study of medicine is their principal object: but some individuals among them aim at a more general acquaintance with literature; and they are particularly successful in the acquisition of languages. When, however, we consider the slavery or rather the non-existence of their press, it would be too sanguine to anticipate any diffusion of general improvement in education throughout Greece. Hitherto, they have gone no farther than to compose Hellenic Grammars in the Romaïc or current language, and to translate some popular works from the European tongues. Mr. Hobhouse found a translation of Telemachus and of Rollin's Antient History: but of the translations of Locke on the Understanding, and of Montesquieu on the Roman Empire, he heard only by report. At Constantinople, are two academies for teaching antient Greek; at Athens, two schools; and, in the neighbourhood of Mytilene, is a sort of university for Greek and other languages. The knowlege thus acquired must, however, be of little use, as long as the country is devoid of good books, and while the objects of education are confined to the perusal of the church-service, to the transaction of petty traffic, or to the qualifying of a young man for employment in the service of the Pashas. In 1808, the French at Corfu established, with great formality, an institution styling itself the Ionian Academy, under the sanction of Napoleon, "Benefactor and Protector:" but the very limited territory in Greece which was subject to him co-operated with other causes to render the attempt fruitless. Mr. Hobhouse treats of the language of the modern Greeks at considerable length, and has exhibited various specimens from printed works. We subjoin a few remarks on the different existing dialects:

> 'The Greek of Smyrna is much infected by the Franks. That of Salonica is more pure. The Athenian language is not, in my opinion, so corrupted, nor has admitted so many Latin and Italian words, as that of the Morea; but it has not preserved so much of the antient elegance as the dialect of Ioannina, which the inhabitants of that city boast to be superior to any, except that of Constantinople.'—
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> 'The substantives most commonly in use have undergone the most complete change; such as represent *bread*, *water*, *clothes*, would surprise the ear of a Hellenist, and yet neither ψωμὶ, νερὸ, nor ῥοῦχα, are of a very late date. But the names of plants are nearly all Hellenic, and a botanical treatise would scarcely want a glossary of Romaïc terms. The old names of places are, as might be expected, not altogether lost in the modern appellations of the Greeks, although the Turks have, in many instances, given names of their own.

'With respect to the written tongue, it must be observed, that the composition at this day current is of three kinds: the first, is the language of the mass, and some other parts of the rituals, which are grammatically Hellenic: the ancient Greek has also been lately used by Coraï, and one or two others, but is not adopted in any common books. The next may be called the Ecclesiastical Greek; which is the kind employed by the majority of the church writers in their pastoral letters, and which, besides other characteristics, does not have recourse to the modern vulgarism of always recurring to the auxiliary verbs. This is the style of many of those cited by Procopius, and even of earlier authors, of Meletius, in his Geography, and several other later works, and does not seem to be formed by any certain rule, but by an attempt of the writers to come as near as possible to the Hellenic. The Romaïc is the third species of composition; but, even in this vulgar idiom, there is necessarily some distinction made by the nature of the various subjects, and the talents of the respective authors. The philosophical treatises of Coraï and Psallida are as good, in point of style, as the dedication of Cimon Portius' grammar to Cardinal Richelieu, and although, perhaps, their subjects contribute much to their apparent superiority, are not so entirely vulgar as the downright common dialect.'

The author is not sanguine with regard to the discovery of antient MSS. in Greece, all the efforts hitherto made with that view having failed of success. The monasteries of Chios, Amorgos, Patmos, and Mega Spelion in Arcadia, were explored in the course of the last century without any favourable result; and, as to the most promising of all sources, the Seraglio Library, at Constantinople, it was clearly ascertained, so long ago as 1688, that it did not possess a single classical relic of importance. At that time, the French ambassador employed persons to make a catalogue of the books and MSS. in this collection, and purchased sixteen MSS. out of a total of two hundred, omitting such as were of little importance, or had previously appeared in print.

Though the modern Greeks can undergo sufferings with great constancy in the cause of religion, intrepidity is certainly no part of the national character: but an exception of some importance from this censure exists in the case of the seafaring portion of the community, who both undertake voyages in merchantmen and perform the navigation of the Ottoman ships of war, the Turks confining themselves, when in the latter, to the management of the guns. The chief naval station of the Greeks is Idra or Hydra, the antient Aristera, a rock situated a few miles from the main-land of Peloponnesus, and containing a town of a population sufficient to man nearly a hundred merchantmen of considerable size. Their nautical skill, however, is very deficient, as they know not how to take a common observation, and are accustomed to direct themselves solely by the compass. In a few particular situations, the Greeks of the main-land have found the means of redeeming their character from the general charge of pusillanimity. The isthmus of Corinth having been of late years intrusted by the Turks to the inhabitants, to prevent the escape of plunderers from the Peloponnesus, the result has been to give to the occupants of that district the spirit and erect appearance of free men. So effectually do they perform the duty of a vigilant militia, that nothing can go in or out without their permission; and an alarm would be communicated in a very short interval, by fires on the summit of the hills, throughout the whole of the Megaris to the passes of Cithæron.

The last part of Mr. H.'s work is appropriated to Constantinople and the Turks. Lord Byron, when in the neghbourhood of the Dardanelles, determined to ascertain the practicability of swimming across the strait, and accomplished it, in company with a naval officer, in little more than an hour. On arriving at Constantinople, the travellers experienced the same difficulty in obtaining statistical information which they had already felt in Greece; so that their remarks are derived from the reports of Christian residents, or from their personal observation. The latter included a visit to the Seraglio, in which we find little that is different from the particulars which we have already communicated to our readers in the notice of Dr. Clarke's Travels.—The Appendix contains a variety of Greek inscriptions, a specimen of Romaïc Romance, and the speech of Phormio, from the Romaïc Thucydides.

An account is likewise given (p. 1111.) of our unsuccessful expedition to the Dardanelles in 1807; in which Mr. H. labours to vindicate Ministers, and has no hesitation in throwing the blame on the persons employed on the service. He gives likewise (p. 1012.) an account of the three successive revolutions at Constantinople which led to the dethronement of the late Sultans, Selim and Mustapha, and to the death of the Vizier Bairacter. This narrative, whether owing to the subject or the writer, will not, we believe, be read with much interest. More attention is due to some hints given by Mr. H. in another part of the book, (p. 607.) relative to an improved management of our diplomatic and naval affairs in the Levant. It is a curious fact that the situation of ambassador at Constantinople has generally been given as a favour to noblemen or men of interest who were desirous of observing the manners and customs of the Turks; as if the *corps diplomatique* had little other business than to survey the inside of the Seraglio.

This publication bears evident marks of the desultory form of a journal; and even the printing has been conducted with a share of the deficiency of polish and of method which is apparent in the composition of the manuscript. Though the volumes are of a full size, the numeration of pages is continued throughout both, as if intended to be thrown into one, and the table of contents for the second volume is to be sought in the first. This irregularity, trivial in itself, is connected with others of more serious import. While the author has extended his travels so far beyond most of his countrymen, he has not learned to disuse colloquial, and, we must add, vulgar expressions. A more extraordinary fault, however, consists (as we have before intimated) in the repeated contradictions which one part of the book gives to the assertions of another. Mr. H. begins by ridiculing the French traveller Pouqueville, (pp. 10. 52. 60.) and in a subsequent passage (p. 218.) he declares him to be 'generally correct and deserving of every attention.' Admitting, by way of apology for Mr. H., that the work in question may be partly good and partly bad, so as to call for a mixed character, what shall we say to a contradictory report in so plain a point as a description of personal appearance? 'The Vizier (he says, p. 110.) was a short man about five feet five inches in height, and very *fat*, though not particularly *corpulent*.' A similar enigma is introduced (p. 617.) into the account of Smyrna; viz. 'The *narrow* streets of this town, especially the Bazar and Bezestein, which are *large* and well built.' The occurrence of such inaccuracies cannot fail to have an unfortunate effect in shaking the reader's faith in points in which it is most important to rely on Mr. H.'s accuracy; and it obliges us to turn over these volumes and their circumstantial details with a distrust which is one of the most unpleasant sensations to the investigator of truth. Happily, however, the reader will find no room to accuse Mr. H. of intentional misrepresentation, for we have seldom met with a traveller more disposed to hold the happy medium with regard to a respect for antiquity. He is equally remote from the indiscriminate panegyric of Mr. Guys and the sarcasms of the flippant imitators of M. De Pauw; who, for the sake of appearing wiser than their predecessors, would gladly make us believe that Greece and the Grecian history contain very little that ought to excite admiration.

Mr. Hobhouse has inserted above twenty engravings, which have the effect of conveying a clearer idea of the objects in question than any written description. They delineate chiefly antient monuments, the dress of the inhabitants of the present day, and the more striking parts of local scenery; and the admirer of the abode of Socrates and Plato has the satisfaction to find, on opening the first volume, a view of Athens; which, though somewhat flattering, seems, on the whole, to present a faithful picture of that celebrated city.

ART. II. *Essay on the Study and Composition of Biography.* By James Field Stanfield. 8vo. pp. 340. Gale and Co., &c. 1813.

IN July 1788 and in September 1789, we had to notice previous publications of this writer, whose new production merits similar attention. His object, he says, in taking this view of biography, is to assist in developing the principles of human nature, and in applying the knowlege of them to practical conduct. He does not approach his topic merely as a critic, who would give lessons to the literary biographer, but also as a moralist, who would infer from manifold experience the principles of real prudence. He expects not only that the writers but that the readers of lives may derive advantage from his pages, and be led to consider *self-movement* (to borrow his own word) as the characteristic and critical object of attention and evolution, under all the accidents of fortune and the combinations of sympathy. That which a man does because of surrounding events, or because of co-operation with others, is much less worthy of analytical observation, that that which he does out of idiosyncrasy. The individual person, as contradistinguished from his fellows, can only be introduced to our acquaintance by being singled out from the crowd, and can only be discriminated in the memory by the notice of his peculiar features.

The first chapter treats of the disadvantages which have arisen to theoretical biography, or *biology*, as the author proposes to call it, from scantiness of material and deficiency of record. Important characters of antiquity might be mentioned, whose influence over human affairs has changed the face of the world, but of whose individual disposition, culture, and intellect, we have very little knowlege. Cyrus is an instance of this kind. Remoteness of time, and inaccessibility of record, frequently compel even the qualified biographer to give a maimed and empty skeleton instead of a living image.

Chapter ii. discusses those deficiencies in the writer of biography which result from the neglect of preparatory studies, or from an absence of the biographic spirit. Mallett's life of Lord Bacon is censured in the words of Warburton; who, being informed that Mallett had undertaken a life of Marlborough, observed that, as in his first work this writer had forgotten that

as a Philosopher, so in his next he might not remem-
Marlborough was a General.

iographic spirit is placed in the art of *characterizing*;—
ing for conspicuity those traits which paint the indi-
and which display his difference from others moving in
career with like pursuits. Great praise is bestowed
luminous and orderly delineations of Melchior Adam;'
arch is commended at p. 24. with a warmth which is
ent with the censure passed at p. 6.: but perhaps the
Cæsar, which provokes the censure, is inferior to the
ves, which excite the praise.

third chapter, Mr. S. treats of the disadvantages aris-
the relative situation of the subject and the writer;
lity or resentment, proceeding from patriotic, factious,
ous prejudices; of credulity or scepticism, arising from
t knowlege, or want of critical tact; and of decep-
ecution, as when a writer involves the account of an
eriod in a particular life, and thus produces an opinion
isproportionate influence of the principal over the sub-
characters. Individuals are criticized; and Lord Cla-
s boldly preferred to Thuanus.

thing is said of auto-biography, or, in the author's
dialect, of self-biography. The theme is important,
ntial to a disquisition of this kind: but it should have
served for a separate discussion, and examined at
extent. Little originality is displayed on a topic which
w, and which of late years has become so fertile. Saint
ine gave an early and a good specimen of this kind of
hy. An intrinsic knowlege of human nature can be
d by the sincere memorialist of his own actions: but
lerance must have made that progress which it effects
the bosom of public depravity, for a writer to grow so
y bold as Rousseau; and to expect an applauding gra-
or stripping himself before the nations of Europe, and
ng to their gaze the nudities of nature and of sin. By
, men will learn to distinguish between the actions
nterest them as spectators, and the actions which con-
em as neighbours: those of the former class may be
the mercy of capricious opinion, but those of the latter
circumscribed by the definition of the magistrate.

life of Constantine by Eusebius is justly censured by
nfield for its profligate extenuation of that Emperor's
Middleton's life of Cicero, and Boswell's life of
n, form an apt contrast: in the one, public principles
nduct are alone brought out, and the man is exhibited
orensic gown; in the other, private and conversational

resource

resource is the object of admiration, and genius is shewn prating in the elbow-chair.

In Part II. of this work, the author considers the materials of biography; and the first chapter treats of requisites and preliminary studies. Among desiderated lives, Mr. S. reckons that of Julius Cæsar; since we possess, he thinks, no account of that hero which is adequate to the importance of his actions and their influence on mankind.

Mr. Stanfield proposes, in a second section, to class men according to their principal pursuit. Thus a first class might consist of those whose object was supreme power; and a second, of those whose aim was literary reputation. We much suspect, however, that deception would mix itself with this plan, since men are more often moved by necessity than by purpose; and many have attained supreme power who did not make it their pursuit. For the evils of anarchy, a military despotism is the appropriate and universal remedy; and the best General of the place and time is called in and forced into power. It is frequently an after-thought of the historian to paint a Cromwell or a Napoleon as premeditating, in early life, those depositions, regicides, or massacres, which were steps indeed to their ascent but not of their own contriving. The interest and attraction of biographical narrative may be enhanced by describing success as the effect of deliberate foresight, and of a settled and definite purpose: but this system teaches an erroneous view of human affairs. The most splendid instances of advancement in life occur among men who were uniformly intent on the *next* step upwards, and not on any specific ultimate station. In the busy streets of the world, the near-sighted walk forwards with less jostling than the far-sighted. The scheme of an indwelling purpose may give a godlike dignity to the hero of a biographer, and facilitate his apotheosis in the skies of celebrity: but in general it is a poetic deception which thus anticipates event, and imputes pre-existence to the offspring of circumstance.

As Mr. S. has condensed into a set of aphorisms the principal inferences drawn by him from an extensive study of the life-writers, we will exhibit this sifted specimen of his mental effort:

'1. A certain degree of fermentation assists in producing an ardent spirit: in the heat of public commotion is engendered the rage of ambition.

'2. Without the supply of talent, ambition is impotent; without opportunity, useless.

'3. Youthful ambition may be excited in consequence of conjectural prediction of future excellence or high destination; the time, place,

place, and personage pronouncing, — all giving influence to the impression.

‘ 4. Early danger teacheth prudence, without extinguishing hope; and, sometimes,

“ Lowliness is young ambition's ladder.”

‘ 5. The instruments of advancement are rendered effective — the great men by interest and intrigue; the soldiers by valour and munificence; and the people by splendour and condescension.

‘ 6. When there are divisions in a state, decision, in embracing one party, condenses the means of advancement, and points the energies to a determinate process.

‘ 7. The influence of a party is concentred in the leader: the chief of a weak faction is before the subaltern or equal member of a powerful combination.

‘ 8. An early act of invincible resolution not only establishes fortitude in the agent himself, but disposes others to confidence in his future stability. The proofs of an innate and determinate magnanimity cannot appear too soon; and a party will give its whole trust and powers to a man who is not to be turned from the cause by interest or danger.

‘ 9. The existence of party is identified with the success of the leader; and to his fortune the hopes and destinies of the whole must be indissolubly chained.

‘ 10. Affording open protection and encouragment to the injured and to the discontented, substantiates the power that is assumed, and converts semblance into reality.

‘ 11. In a popular career, the display of virtues is as necessary as the actual possession.

‘ 12. Public estimation is the support of power; and can never be preserved without the most evident observance of the rites and ordinances of national religion.

‘ 13. Whilst designs are silently advancing, suspicion is lulled by the plausible semblance of contradictory manners.

‘ 14. Precipitation is injurious, provided the machine do not stand still or retrograde: that time is not lost, which gives strength to the power, addition to the means, and facility to the progression.

‘ 15. To a mind of energy, the failure in any subordinate attempt is but a stimulus to superior atchievements. Proceed or perish!

‘ 16. The course once begun, popular attention is fixed — no charm, no remission — all is dazzling, successful progression.

‘ 17. Offices, or public stations, carry in themselves a character of power and privilege, which is always added to the native worth and influence of the possessor.

‘ 18. Specious and shewy allurements bend before the sagacious appreciation of solid advantage.

‘ 19. In comparative or conjunct transactions, all reputation is monopolized by the superiority that overbears every appearance of successful participation.

‘ 20. Successes, in the same scenes and exploits, where others have toiled to obtain a celebrity, are made light of, — in order to enhance the value of the agent's more important atchievements.

'21. With adversaries, hope is never to be extinguished: success is then viewed without horror, and an opening still left to reconciliation.

'22. In many cases, it is as necessary to wink at the errors of friends, as it is convenient to expose as well as profit by the defects of opponents.

'23. The interest of rivals may be promoted, when their success gives facility to the scheme in hand; and the innovations of others are supported, when they may stand as precedents to be taken advantage of on future occasions.

'24. The allurements of love, and the avengement of injuries, are powerful but not invincible temptations: affection and resentment are the two greatest sacrifices that can be immolated on the altar of ambition.

'25. Money, the sinews of political as well as military operations, if levied by foreign warfare, will effect a double advantage—reputation in the acquisition, and power in the disposal.

'26. Favourable occasions are fleeting; vigilance seizes upon, and makes them instrumental: the neglect of one opportunity may put to hazard a whole plan of action.

'27. Common forms and usages sink before power and resolution.

'28. The confidence of possessing a power to infuse heroism, and even abilities, into the souls of others, returns, with added energy, upon the agent, and renders the combination invincible.

'29. The end being ever in view, the intermediate atchievements will partake of the nature of the object; but detain attention only as means to the ultimate accomplishment.

'30. When the inevitable moment, at last, demands the master-resolution,—silence precedes the blow—no preparatory signs give time to apprehension or resistance. The leader's spirit is imparted in the surprise and grandeur of the stroke; thought is overwhelmed in admiration;—and suddenness becomes the soul that animates decision.'

The second chapter of this part discusses again the biographical spirit. Dramatic studies form an expedient preparation. As those, who have learned to draw, observe more accurately the features of nature, so those, who frequent the theatre, observe more accurately the features of character. If we may re-quote from our own pages (Vol. xviii. N.S. p. 126.) a passage which is introduced in p. 113. by this author, "There is a passion of the mind, the strength of which is usually commensurate with the progress of our knowlege of human nature;—which delights to observe the manners; to investigate the symptoms of character; to infer from the occasional actions of an individual the predisposing bent or state of his mind; or, from a preconceived idea of his turn and disposition, to infer his probable conduct in given circumstances, and to compare with these inferences the actual result;—a *philosophic passion*, which might be named the ETHIC CURIOSITY." It is this ssion especially which the biographer has to form and to ltivate, and which is to guide him, in equivocal cases, to real motive of action in his heroes. Certain traits of cha- cter, which result from organic tendencies, are born with us, truly instinctive, and, however concealed by the drapery life on common occasions, seldom fail to become visible in ry negligent or in very stimulated states of the animal stem. Other habits of character, which result from early scipline and contiguous imitation, are constantly promi- nt, and form, as it were, the usual dress of a particular per- n; yet these, which to common observers are the most no- rious and familiar features of the appearance, are less worthy reliance in critical than in ordinary transactions. Other raphernalia of character, which are assumed in order to realize e idea of propriety formed by a given individual, are known be only the official dress of the husband, or parent, or ma- strate; and yet they may display a refined or an imperfect, nse of duty. These three subdivisions of human behaviour ay be compared with the person, the part, and the costume the stage-player: the critic has to consider how much Na- re, how much the poet, and how much the manager, has ntributed to the effect of the performance.

In elucidation of the thirtieth aphorism, Mr. Stanfield gives veral instances from celebrated biographies of well-managed itical moments, when the eventual object of a man's life first pened into a decisive resolution. Cæsar's passage of the ubicon, Drake's view of the Pacific Ocean from the isthmus Darien, Washington's parting from his comrades in arms at ew York, Bruce's triumph on discovering the supposed urce of the Nile, and Clarkson's finding of Isaac Parker, are e examples here adduced. We lament the omission of ibbon resolving, amid the ruins of the Capitol, to undertake history of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. To ark the crisis of a man's destination, and to detect that in- ant of time in which all his past acquirements converge in me momentary focus to radiate forth afresh and illuminate s future sphere, is however rather a poetic than an historic rm of delineation. It borders more on allegory than on fact. len are rarely conscious of such flashes of determination. et there is a disposition in the human mind, and it assists the emory, to find out in every thing that which by a defensible all in language is called the *final cause*; — the cause inferred om the *end* or event, and not suggested by the preparatory ircumstances.

Chapter iii. treats of Impartiality and Moral Power; topics hich are injudiciously connected. To "speak the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," constitutes the impartial man: but moral power, according to the author's sense of the phrase, is to be displayed by suppressing indecent anecdotes, and facts tending to excite indelicate ideas, when they occur in connection with the object of delineation; — and thus an impartial and a morally meritorious characterization are in some cases inconsistent. We believe that we must prefer the impartial system. The vicious have a right to know whether advancement in life is occasionally favoured more by cultivating or by repressing meretricious propensities; whether the patronage of sympathy is not more frequent than the selection of merit; whether manners do not avail more than virtues, and figure than manners; whether rashness outstrips prudence, and plasticity succeeds better than principle. The morality of the schools may require many corrections: it suited Mr. Burke to maintain that there are no discoveries to be made in morals: but, if our definitions of virtue and of prudence do not always coincide, it is evident that there are discoveries yet to be made; — and who is to make them? Clearly, the biographer. When a character usefully efficacious is besmeared with some vices, the critic is to inquire in what degree the vices contributed to the efficacy. Correct morals are always superinduced by means of habits of self-restraint, all which imply some moral timidity: but there are lines of excellence in which audacity is requisite; and in these, probably, the aspirant must be contented to forgo correct morals. Human imagination can, but nature cannot, connect the incompatible. Suetonius was blamed, in the hearing of Saint Jerome, for the indecency with which he had recorded the vices of the Roman emperors: but the holy father calmly observed, that he had written the lives of those monsters with the same freedom with which they had led them. It is obvious, however, that in these cases the object must be to warn, not to excite to imitation, by the exposure of that which is censurable.

Chapter iv. relates to 'Matter and Auxiliary Objects.' In this subdivision, is inserted a table of queries to be put by a literary drudge to the observers of a man whose life is to be chronicled; and we shall copy this table, which may prepare many petty records of subsequent value:

> 'As every circumstance, which might influence the disposition, character, and conduct, comes within the scope of our consideration — our studies commence with a survey of the manners and state of the country (where our hero is born) as far as they regard the condition of our subject. His parents, their rank in life and character. Circumstances, before or at his birth, by which he was liable to be permanently affected. Time of birth.

ncy. — Bodily constitution and form. Manner of receiving
at : whether from the breasts of the mother, a hireling nurse,
out that mode of nutrition at all. Sickness and health.
atural disposition.
ldhood. — Brothers, sisters, or other domestic relatives.
ions. Sports. City or country. Early tales and songs.
aments. Courage or timidity. Susceptibility or dulness.
, or laxity, or total want of parental or other authority.
for the mind to exercise its powers ; from situation, ill health,
circumstances.
olescence. — Schools. Tutors. Condisciples. Self-com-
of condition, of person, of mind, with the immediate sur-
g society. Books independent of those peculiar to education.
n. Freedom or strictness of manners. Appetites. Amuse-
Casual circumstances.
ith. — Personal qualities. Education, public or private.
Attention or indolence. Local situation and scenery.
ions. Visits. Conversation. Convival habits or temper-
Dress. Habits. Manners. Friends. Competitors. Ad-
. Correspondence. Commerce with the fair sex. Pur-
Obstructions. Helps. Patronage. Attainments. Miscar-

anhood. — Connections. Travels. Political principles.
s of sentiment, or maturity of and steadiness in former
s and practices. Profession. Public distinction. Office.
al employment. Works of literature or science. Passions.
. Settlement. Marriage. Domestic habits. Children.
on in life. Affluence, or adversity. Exploits or general
ions, if any, to be considered in that portion of the progress
hey occurred. Incidental circumstances.
e. — Respect or neglect. Liberality or avarice. Comforts.
Friends. Correspondence. Declension. Sickness ; and
-Death : with all the circumstances attending and following
ul catastrophe. Funeral. Last will. Funeral oration and
.'

appy instance is given at p. 166. of a behaviour, which
emingly inconsistent with the personal feelings of the
ual, being nevertheless sufficiently authenticated and
uently explained. Such occurrences in biography bring
proof a writer's critical skill. Shall he reject the evi-
of the fact, or can he detect the hidden solution ?—This
chapter is one of the best in the work, and abounds with
e and original observations on the use which may be
f the documents of biography.

III. is allotted to composition ; and the first chapter is
'Order and Process of the Work' of the biographer.
st care is an exordium ; which should be proportionate
propriate. His next care, in Mr. Stanfield's distribution
ter, would be a preliminary character : but we should
prefer

prefer to reserve the character for the conclusion, and to make it a condensed inference from the facts, not a motive for attending to them. The parentage is proposed for the third topic, and for the fourth the birth and infancy; a fifth and somewhat tedious section is allotted to childhood: but perhaps men are too inattentive to the early indications and permanent impressions of bent to which this age is liable. Adolescence is the sixth period, and usually forms the manners, which may be traced to the way in which it is passed. It is justly observed that our companions at this era have more influence than our tutors; and that to keep the company and copy the usages of the better sort of those who are engaged in our own line of pursuit is a more eligible rule of conduct, than to realize the theoretical regularity of parental and preceptive system. Adolescence is often too much repressed in England, so as to give the manners an unpleasant reserve, and an inconvenient degree of false shame. — Youth, the author's seventh period, (he is a great subdivider,) is commonly indulged at college with a liberal independence, but with a dangerous leisure.

The eighth section, concerning Manhood, naturally includes in every life the principal facts. A table of common-places occurs, inviting the biographer to concentrate his attention on the ruling passion of the man, and the leading purpose of his being.—The ninth and last epoch is to include the old age and the decease. An excessive value is attached by the author to death-bed particulars, which usually exhibit a mind lowered by disease below its natural rank.

Mr. Stanfield returns in the next chapter to the important topic of Character. There are certain general classes, which might be denominated after the more prominent delineations of novelists or dramatists, and to which almost every individual could be referred. Nature has but a limited company of actors, and produces her variety by shifting the parts. Messalina appears again as Margaret of Valois, but she had appeared a hundred times in other inferior lines. The soul of Virgil may be discerned in Racine, and that of Tasso in Rousseau, but how often these souls had animated men not destined to authorship! The Romans deified Antoninus and Faustina; the French led to the scaffold a very similar couple in Louis the Sixteenth and Marie Antoinette. Pythagoras imagined that a given number of human souls were perpetually transmigrating into new bodies, and repeating the exhibition of their original tendencies. Considered as an allegory, this theory well deserves admission in psychology.

The third chapter is allotted to 'Professional Biography.' Cibber's *Apology* is highly praised; and Gibbon's sketch of his moirs. — The concluding chapter gives a summary of eding parts, and recommends the study of biography, y, as conducive to morality, prudence, and wisdom ; icularly, as revealing the art of success in the line of destination. It is of value as a mine of knowlege, and of conduct. The Goths fancied that the souls of the us dead were transmuted into flame; and that tomb- ended from the graves of heroes, which became stars in nament. Such a transmutation the eminent really by the record of their lives: thenceforth, like the lamps , they blaze in the eyes of men, and guide the steps of ccessive passenger along the nobler paths of human

defect strikes us as prominent in this dissertation, viz. author lays down his rules without reserve or qualifica- s if some specific form of representation constituted the a perfect biography, and ought on every occasion to be ; whereas the same life should be differently written ng to its purpose. — If the editor of a literary dictionary a writer to compose the life of Julius Cæsar, the bio- is especially to dwell on his literary merit, to appre- Commentaries critically, to lament the loss of his work ogy in language, to inquire whether one of the tragedies eca's anthology was really translated by him from the and to detail his reformation of the calendar : — but, if ed about the same task by the editor of a military dic- the writer is preferably to describe Cæsar's apprentice- Bithynia, his exploits in Spain, and his skilful conquest l, though sullied by the plunder of Saguntum. His assage of the Rubicon, his *ubiquity* during the war with y, his decisive victory at Pharsalia, the critical accidents andria, and at last the hemming in of Cato, would now te the chosen objects of attention, because these are to men the useful points of contemplation. — If, however, ate and complete life of this eminent individual were to rtaken, his intellectual and his practical greatness would brought forwards ; and it would be proper to inquire in egree his licentious moral habits promoted or impeded nt in the world. Marital jealousy raised up important s to Cæsar. He fell at Cicero's instigation ; and the f Brutus was the most respectable which practically in the conspiracy.

Mr. Stanfield has bestowed so much labour on ascertain- theory of the biographic art, we could wish to see him g it to practice. Why should he not undertake a dic- of the British *geographers*, using the word in its enlarged sense, so as to comprehend all the explorers of the surface of the world; those who conduct voyages of discovery, those who travel inland, and those who engage in stationary topography? A vast mass of British merit has been employed in making the world known to its inhabitants; and the employment extends with commerce, with empire, and with science. By separating into one *biographicon* this peculiar class of lives, a philanthropic emulation would be excited, a debt of social gratitude would be discharged, a trophy to patriotism would be erected, and an instructive knowlege of the present state of nations and the gradual concatenation of intercourse would be diffused. Literature should rear altars to the missionaries of human civilization.

ART. III. *Letters written by eminent Persons in the 17th and 18th Centuries.* To which are added, Hearne's Journeys to Reading, and to Whaddon-hall, the Seat of Browne Willis, Esq. and Lives of eminent Men, by John Aubrey, Esq. The whole now first published from the Originals in the Bodleian Library and Ashmolean Museum, with Biographical and Literary Illustrations. 3 Vols. 8vo. pp. 300. in each. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

A TASTE for personal archaiology, (if we may use the term,) for inspecting the coffins of long-buried eminence, and for recovering from the mould of oblivion their hoarded tokens or their keep-sakes of friendship, should be revived at the beginning of every century, in order that men may look round for the deficiencies or the suppressions of cotemporary intelligence, and complete, while documents remain, the biographical memorials of the illustrious. Many interesting and characteristic anecdotes, which circulate in conversation, may not be recorded immediately, because they involve some personality that is offensive to the living: but, after the lapse of a generation, such motives for reticency usually expire. It must be acknowleged, however, that the memory of the celebrated rather loses than gains by this scrutinizing industry. No inconvenience arises from promulgating immediately the good deeds, or the panegyrical speeches, of deceased rank: — it is the scandalous anecdote, or the satirical saying, which it was found expedient to keep back. He who peeps behind a curtain will discover what the curtain was drawn to conceal, and will usually perceive at best the spoils of the slattern, and perhaps the wrapper of the libertine.*

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* Care, however, has been taken, in the selection before us, to omit that which was too *gross* (p. iv.) for publication.

Still,

, if something of depretiation be incurred, much of
ion is acquired, by these posthumous investigations. A
knowlege is often over-rated by his one chief book: but
espondence he betrays his ignorance of other topics; and
mscription of his acquirement is thus obtained. Genius
tellect, on the contrary, display themselves unfettered in
letters; they have their decorations to fling, and their
ices to draw, about little as well as about great matters.
lege, again, is versatile in its hoards. One age values the
t which is filled with specimens of classical, and another
tes that which is occupied by black-letter, erudition.
ass of critical readers, the audience of appeal, is some-
in a cue to turn over volumes of poetry, sometimes those
ology, and sometimes those of history. The taste of
age includes little things among its toys, or objects of
ity: but every generation alters its selection of little
about which it is to be interested. Hence the corre-
ence of men of erudition decays in interest with the lapse
e, and sounds like learned trifling: whereas the corre-
ence of men of talents retains all its original attraction.
present work consists of three volumes of literary re-
transcribed from the principal manuscript-treasures of
iversity of Oxford. In the first volume are contained one
ed and ten private letters from Hickes, Wallis, Creech,
thnot, Gale, Carte, and other eminent men who flourished
the period of the Revolution. Some light is thrown on
the Second's visit to Oxford, respecting which we lately
in noticing the life of Bishop Hough; (Rev. for October
) but, in general, the correspondence is disappointingly
resting and provokingly uninstructive. The table of
ts induces us to read here and to read there, and at
to cut open almost every leaf; and at the end of the
e regret a frivolous loss of time, and an inane lack of
ment. That we may not wholly decide for our readers,
ll extract the hundredth letter, p.270.:

' Dr. TURNER to Dr. CHARLETT.

' On the learned Taylor of Norwich.

Good Master, ' *Norwich, March* 4. 1714.
was very pleasing to me to read in your last letter of that
paid to the merit and industry of Mr. Hearne by the majority
University in their choice of him to be Superior Beadle of Law
chitypographus. Which places he will be a credit to, and they
ord him brave encouragement, and a good deal of time for his
I don't doubt but Dr. Hudson has long since been supplied
Janitor for the Library, or else the Dean and I should have
d to have recommended from hence a person who is a surprising
instance

instance of the power of application to books. A taylor[*] of this town of about 30 years of age, who has within seven years mastered seven languages, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Chaldea, Syriac, Arabic, and Persic. Mr. Professor Ockley being here since Christmas has examined him, and given him an ample testimonial in writing of his skill in the Oriental languages. Our Dean also thinks him very extraordinary. But he is very poor, and his landlord lately seized a Polyglot Bible (which he had made shift to purchase) for rent. But there is care taken to clear his debts; and if a way could be thought of to make him useful, I believe we could get a subscription towards part of his maintenance.’

In the second volume, are contained fifty-two letters from the Bodleian Library and eight from the Ashmolean Museum. These last are mostly of older date, but are again very dull, and include fewer eminent names than those in the first volume. The most curious of them is the CLIXth, from T. Carte to G. Ballard, on the death of Henry VI. Under the inspection of an editor of taste, the entire collection of letters would have been included in a single volume, and have formed a separate work; to which might have been attached, as an appendix, the journies of Hearne to Whaddon-hall, to Reading, and to Silchester. This is the Thomas Hearne on whom Swift wrote the well-known lively epigram.

The more valuable part of this publication begins at p. 200. of the second volume, and consists of a series of short biographies drawn up by John Aubrey. They awaken many anecdotes of celebrated men which have hitherto slumbered. We exhibit as a specimen the life of Bacon.

‘ Sir FRANCIS BACON, Kt.

‘ *Baron of Verulam, Viscount of St. Alban's, and Lord High Chancellor of England.*

‘ In his Lordship's prosperity, S^r. Fulke Grevil, Lord Brooke, was his great friend and acquaintance, but when he was in disgrace and want, he was so unworthy as to forbid his butler to let him have any more small beer, which he had often sent for, his stomach being nice, and the small beere of Grayes Inne not liking his pallet. This has donne his memorie more dishonour than S^r. Ph. Sydney's friendship engraven on his monument hath donne him honour.

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[*] ‘ His name was Henry Wild. See some account of him in the Gent. Mag. for March 1755. The Memoir of his Life is very deficient in point of dates; but it appears that he went to Oxford, and on the recommendation of Dr. Prideaux, Dean of Norwich, was employed in the Bodleian Library, in translating, or making extracts from, the Oriental MSS. He removed from Oxford to London, about the year 1720, and lived there under the patronage of Dr. Mead. In 1734, was published his translation from the Arabic of “ Mahomet's Journey to Heaven,” a posthumous work, and the only one of his that was ever printed.’

‘ Richard

ichard Earle of Dorset was a great admirer and friend of the
h. Bacon, and was wont to have S^{r}. Tho. Billingsley along with
o remember and to putt down in writing my Lord's sayinges
le. Mr. Ben Jonson was one of his friends and acquaintance,
th appeare by his excellent verses on his Lo$^{p's}$ birth day, in
vol. and in his *Vnderwoods*, where he gives him a character,
ncludes, That about his time, and within his view, were borne
witts that could honour a nation or help studie. He came often
John Danvers at Chelsey. Sir John told me that when his Lo^{p}.
rote the *Hist. of Hen.* 7. he sent the manuscript copie to him
re his opinion of it before 'twas printed. Qd. Sir John, Your
hip knowes that I am no schollar. 'Tis no matter, said my
I know what a schollar can say; I would know what *you* can
Sir John read it, and gave his opinion what he misliked (w^{ch} I
rry I have forgott) w^{ch} my L^{d}. acknowledged to be true, and
d it. "Why," said he, "a schollar would never have told me

r. Tho. Hobbes (Malmesburiensis) was beloved by his Lo^{p}. who
ont to have him walke with him in his delicate groves, when
meditate: and when a notion darted into his mind, Mr. Hobbes
resently to write it downe, and his Lo^{p}. was wont to say that
it better than any one els about him; for that many times,
he read their notes he scarce understood what they writt, be-
they understood it not clearly themselves. In short, all that
reat and good loved & honoured him. Sir Edward Coke, Ld.
Justice, alwayes envyed him, and would be undervalueing his
I knew old lawyers that remembred it.

le was Lord Protector during King James's progresse into
nd, and gave audience in great state to Ambassadors in the
etting house at Whitehall. His Lo^{p}. would many times have
ue in the next roome where he meditated. The Aviary at Yorke
was built by his Lo^{p}.; it did cost 300 lib. Every meale, ac-
g to the season of the yeare, he had his table strewed with
herbes and flowers, which he sayd did refresh his spirits and
rie. When his Lo^{p}. was at his country house at Gorhambery,
lban's seemed as if the court had been there, so nobly did he
His servants had liveries with his crest; his watermen were
imployed by gentlemen than even the king's.

ing James sent a buck to him, and he gave the keeper fifty
ds.

le was wont to say to his servant, *Hunt*, (who was a notable
y man, and loved this world, and the only servant he had that
uld never gett to become bound for him,) "The world was
for man (Hunt), and not man for the world." Hunt left an
of 1000 lib. *per ann.* in Somerset.

one of his servants durst appeare before him without Spanish
r bootes: for he would smell the neates leather, which offended

he East India merchants presented his Lo^{p}. with a cabinet of
s, which his page, Mr. Cockaine, received, and deceived his

‘ His Lordship was a good Poet, but conceal'd, as appeares by his Letters. See excellent verses of his Lo^{p}.’ which Mr. Farnaby translated into Greeke, and printed both in his Ανθολογια, &c.

‘ The world's a bubble, and the life of man,
Less than a span, &c.’

‘ *Apothegmata.*

‘ His Lordship being in Yorke house garden looking on Fishers, as they were throwing their nett, asked them what they would take for their draught; they answered *so much:* his Lo^{p}. would offer them no more but *so much*. They drew up their nett, and it were only 2 or 3 little fishes, his Lo^{p}. then told them, it had been better for them to have taken his offer. They replied, they hoped to have had a better draught; but, said his Lo^{p}. “ *Hope is a good breakfast, but an ill supper.*”

‘ When his Lo^{p}. was in disfavour, his neighbours hearing how much he was indebted, came to him with a motion to buy Oake-wood of him. His Lo^{p}. told them, “ *He would not sell his Feathers.*”

‘ The Earle of Manchester being removed from his place of Lord Chiefe Justice of the Com̄on Pleas to be Lord President of the Councell, told my Lord (upon his fall) that he was sorry to see him made such an example. Lord Bacon replied, It did not trouble him, since *he* was made *a President*.

‘ The Bishop of London did cutt downe a noble cloud of trees at Fulham. The Lord Chancellor told him that he was *a good expounder of darke places*.

‘ Upon his being in disfavour, his servants suddenly went away, he compared them to the flying of the vermin when the house was falling.

‘ One told his Lordship it was now time to look about him. He replyed, “ I doe not looke *about* me, I looke *above* me.”

‘ Sir Julius Cæsar, (Master of the Rolles,) sent to his Lo^{p}. in his necessity a hundred pounds for a present*. His Lordship would often drinke a good draught of strong beer (March beer) to-bed-wards, to lay his working fancy asleep: which otherwise would keepe him from sleeping great part of the night. I remember Sir John Danvers told me, that his Lo^{p}. much delighted in his curious garden at Chelsey, and as he was walking there one time, he fell downe in a sowne. My Lady Danvers rubbed his face, temples, &c. and gave him cordiall water: as soon as he came to himselfe, sayd he, “ Madam, I am no good *footman*.”

‘ Three of his Lordship's servants † kept their coaches, and some kept race-horses.

‘ . . . . . His Favourites tooke bribes, but his Lo^{p}. alwayes gave judgement *secundum æquum et bonum*. His Decrees in Chancery stand firme, there are fewer of his decrees reverst, than of any other Chancellor.

‘ * Most of these informations I have from S^{r} John Danvers.’

‘ † Sir Tho. Meautys, Mr. . . . Bushell, Mr. . . . Idney.’

'His daughter maried her Gentleman Usher, Sir Thomas* Vnderhill, whom she made deafe and blind, with too much of Venus. She was living since the beheading of the late King.

'He had a delicate, lively hazel eie; Dr. Harvey told me it was like the eie of a viper.

'I have now forgott what Mr. Bushell sayd, whether his Lordship enjoyed his Muse best at night, or in the morning.

'Mr. Hobbes told me that the cause of his L^{p}.'s death was trying an experiment. As he was taking the aire in a coach with Dr. Witherborne (a Scotchman, Physician to the King,) towards Highgate, snow lay on the ground, and it came into my Lord's thoughts, why flesh might not be preserved in snow as in salt. They were resolved they would try the experiment presently. They alighted out of the coach, and went into a poore woman's house at the bottome of Highgate hill, and bought a hen, and made the woman exenterate it, and then stuffed the body with snow, and my Lord did help to doe it himselfe. The snow so chilled him, that he immediately fell so extremely ill, that he could not returne to his lodgings, (I suppose then at Graye's Inne,) but went to the Earl of Arundell's house, at Highgate, where they putt him into a good bed warmed with a panne, but it was a damp bed that had not been layn in about a yeare before, which gave him such a cold that in 2 or 3 days, as I remember he [Mr. Hobbes] told me, he dyed of suffocation.

'He had a uterine † brother Anthony Bacon, who was a very great statesman, and much beyond his brother Francis for the Politiques. A lame man; he was a pensioner to, and lived with .... Earle of Essex, and to him he [Francis] dedicates the first edition of his Essayes, a little booke no bigger than a Primer, which I have seen in the Bodleian Library.

'His sisters were ingeniose and well-bred; they well understood the use of the Globes, as you may find in the preface of Mr. Blundeville of the Sphere: see if it is not dedicated to them. One of them was maried to S^{r} John Cunstable of Yorkshire. To this bro. in law he dedicates his second edition of his Essayes in 8vo. his last in 4to. to the D. of Bucks.'

The account of Beaumont (p. 236.) seems to prove that Fletcher was the principal author of the plays which pass under their joint names. Fletcher died of the plague in 1625.

In the third volume, the life of Harrington is one of the most communicative of new particulars. In the life of Selden, are suppressions which will tantalize the inquisitive. The longest, most curious, and most complete of these biographies, is the life of Hobbes; which is dilated over forty-five pages, and contains a copy of his will.—Our biographers will find, in

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'* I thinke.'

'† His mother was .... Cooke, sister of .... Cooke of Giddyhall in Essex, 2d wife to Sir Nicholas Bacon.'

these compositions of Aubrey, many little particulars which have hitherto escaped them: but, in our judgment, this collection again ought to have formed a separate work, and to have been introduced by an original biographical memoir of Aubrey himself. His motive for compiling the lives was to supply Anthony Wood with materials for the *Athenæ Oxonienses;* and his attention to record the personal appearance, the domestic habits, and the favourite companions of his heroes, deserves praise and imitation.

Although this publication might have been better planned, and advantageously separated into two distinct works;—although it might have been more elaborately edited, and have contained some notes to correct Aubrey's errors;—yet we receive it as on the whole an useful addition to the documents for a register of British worthies. The antiquary will read it with gladness; the historian will consult it with patience; and the biographer will employ it with instruction.

ART. IV. *Researches about Atmospheric Phænomena:* together with Meteorological Journals, &c. By Thomas Forster, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 220. Underwood. 1813.

NOTWITHSTANDING the great number of literary men, and of learned societies, who have for a long time been employing themselves in keeping registers of the weather, and in observing atmospherical phænomena, it must be confessed that neither the science of meteorology nor the practice of it has yet made any considerable progress. We can account in a satisfactory manner for very few of the changes which are daily exhibited before our eyes, and we are still unable to predict those changes with any degree of certainty. This deficiency, perhaps, has proceeded from the circumstance, that the attention has been almost exclusively directed to the instruments by which we judge of the weight, temperature, and moisture of the air; in which way we do not become acquainted with the alterations in the atmosphere till after they have taken place. When any other remarks have been made, they are expressed in language not so precise as to convey accurate ideas, and have indeed been so incorrect as to deserve little notice. Lately, however, some individuals have followed a plan of observation which seems much more likely to promote the acquisition of this species of knowlege, and which can scarcely fail to answer some useful purpose. They have carefully watched the different appearances which the clouds assume, have formed a nomenclature to record those appearances, have noticed also the state of the barometer, thermometer, &c. and have compared all these particulars with the subsequent changes of the weather. This plan was first adopted, at least in a regular and systematic manner, by Mr. Howard, and has been extended still farther by the author of the volume now before us. He has been for some time in the habit of publishing his reports in the different scientific journals, and he has now thrown into a more connected form the general principles which he has deduced from his observations.

Mr. Forster divides his work into ten chapters. The first is intitled introductory, and consists principally of Mr. Howard's hypothesis of the origin and modification of clouds. Mr. H.'s opinions on this subject have been some time before the public, and it would lead us beyond our limits to enter on a minute examination of them in this place: we have only to state that they are adopted by the present author, with little or no alteration, except that he subdivides the species of Mr. Howard into varieties, and gives them also specific characters and appellations, which appear to us in general very appropriate. The extension of the original arrangement occupies the second chapter, consisting of 17 sections; in which, besides the account of the modifications of the clouds, derived from their form, we have remarks on thunder-storms, rain, snow, and hail,—on the colour and elevation of clouds,—on their structure,—on the luminous appearances called halos, parhelia, &c.—and, lastly, on the process of evaporation.

The most original and interesting of these sections relates to halos, which are arranged and defined in a much more scientific manner than any which had previously been allotted to them; the essential differences between them are pointed out; and a nomenclature is formed, which will probably be sufficient to enable the meteorologist to note down the phænomena with the requisite accuracy. Falling stars and meteors occupy the third chapter: but it contains rather an imperfect account of them; and we think that the author has been unfortunate in adopting Mr. De Luc's hypotheses of their phosphorescent nature, which appears to us to be without foundation. The subsequent chapters are less strictly scientific, and, on the whole, of less value than the first three. The indications of future changes in the weather, as deduced from the particular motions of animals, from the observation of the usual meteorological instruments, and the effects on the vital functions of organized bodies, each constitute the subject of a short chapter; and we have also some scanty remarks on winds. The account of atmospherical electricity is more ample and interesting. Mr. F. appears to regard electricity as the source of all the changes

changes of the atmosphere, as the cause on which they depend, and as the immediate agent by which they are produced. The various forms which the clouds assume, the different changes which they undergo, the manner in which the modifications are converted into each other, the occurrence of rain and of fair weather, not to mention the more obvious phænomena of thunder and lightning, are all to be traced to the action of the electric fluid.

The tenth chapter treats on 'the superstitious Notions which appear to have had their Origin in an Observance of certain meteorological Phænomena.' As a specimen of Mr. Forster's manner, we shall quote the commencement of this section; premising that, in our opinion, his ideas on the subject are generally well founded:

> 'There is a natural tendency in the human mind, arising from the faculty of association, to attach ideas of good or evil to those objects which have been observed to precede or to accompany pleasurable or painful circumstances: hence the origin of many superstitious opinions.
>
> 'From such association of ideas, many animals were antiently worshipped, either as good or evil spirits; and even at a later period, when their worship was rejected as superstitious, or useless, they were considered as foreboders of evil or of good. Many of these superstitions originated in the observance of facts, ascribable to atmospheric influence. Thus, certain birds being affected by peculiarities of the air, previous to thunder storms, or other terrible events, and showing signs of their affections by particular habits, were found to be foreboders of tempests, hurricanes, and other dangerous atmospheric commotions; and they were subsequently considered as evil omens in general, gaining, as it were, an ill name, by their utility as monitors. So the crow garrulous, before stormy weather, was afterwards regarded as a predictor of general misfortune. Many animals too were considered by the antients as influenced by human prayers and supplications. In this manner, the observance of many real facts laid the foundation for superstitions, which terrified the ignorant, and which the designing made use of in order to acquire respect, and to aggrandize their own power. Hence the rise of sorcerers, augurs, and other impostors, the interpreters of omens and portenta, who pretended, in the peculiar flight and song of birds, to read the destinies of monarchs and of nations. It is probable, that out of a number of such predictions, some might happen to be true, where the sagacity of the augur penetrated farther into probable events than the ignorance of the multitude; and this fortuitous coincidence enhanced the public credulity, strengthened the empire of superstition, and became a fatal impediment to the progress of science throughout succeeding ages.'

This chapter, as well as some of the preceding, is illustrated by numerous quotations from the classical writers, which are appropriate and interesting: but many of them are inaccurately transcribed. We have only farther to remark that this tract, although it contains many errors of style, and some weak and unimportant observations, possesses considerable claims to respect, and must tend to the advantage of the science which the author has cultivated with so much assiduity.

Art. V. *A Practical Synopsis of Cutaneous Diseases*, according to the Arrangement of Dr. Willan, exhibiting a concise View of the diagnostic Symptoms and the Method of Treatment. By Thomas Bateman, M.D. F.L.S. Physician to the Public Dispensary, and to the Fever Institution. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Every member of the medical profession is sufficiently sensible of the loss which it sustained by the premature death of Dr. Willan; in consequence of which his classical work on the diseases of the skin was left in so unfinished a state, that the part which still remains unprinted is not likely ever to meet the public eye. We are happy, however, to be able to say that this great desideratum is, in a considerable degree, supplied by the author of the volume now before us; though Dr. Bateman, in his preface, modestly declines any comparison with Dr. Willan, and very candidly acknowleges how far he is indebted to him for his materials:

> 'To prevent any misapprehension in regard to the nature and object of this volume, it may be necessary to state, that it is not brought forward with any pretensions to supply the deficiencies which have been left in the valuable treatise of Dr. Willan, or to be considered as the completion of that original work. Its sole purpose is to present an abstract of the classification proposed by that respected author, together with a concise view of all the genera and species, which he intended that it should comprehend. The materials for the description of the first four Orders have been obtained principally from Dr. Willan's publication, of which the first part of this Synopsis may be regarded as an abridgement: some additional facts, however, have been supplied from subsequent observation. The remainder of the matter has been derived partly from personal experience and research, but principally from a constant intercourse with Dr. Willan, upon the subject of these diseases, during a period of ten years, while his colleague at the Public Dispensary, and from his own communications in his last illness, before he departed for Madeira, when he kindly undertook a cursory perusal of his unfinished MSS. for my information, during which I made notes relative to those points with which I was least acquainted.'

Our readers will recollect that the last part of Dr. W.'s system, which he lived to finish, was the fourth, comprizing the order of *bullæ*; and that four orders still remain unpublished, viz. pustules, vesicles, tubercles, and spots. The principal features of the arrangement, as originally announced by Dr. Willan, are entirely preserved by Dr. Bateman, and very nearly all the subordinate divisions: but a few alterations and some additions occur; and, although it is obvious that the author has been unwilling to deviate from the method of his predecessor, we think that he has shewn great judgment and discretion in this respect. His work differs essentially from that of Dr. Willan. While the latter is to be regarded as a complete treatise on cutaneous diseases, including an accurate investigation of their nature and origin, adjusting their nomenclature, comparing their phænomena with the descriptions of other writers, antient and modern, and discussing the merits of the various means proposed for their cure, Dr. Bateman presents us with no more than a 'practical synopsis;' in which these topics are treated in a brief and cursory manner; and the main point to which the attention is directed is to lay down a correct diagnosis, and to establish general principles on which the treatment ought to be conducted. In accomplishing his object, we think that he has been remarkably successful; and we have very seldom perused a medical work with more complete satisfaction.

In our remarks on this volume, we shall principally confine ourselves to the last four orders, being those which were left unfinished by Dr. Willan; viz. pustules, vesicles, tubercles, and spots. A pustule is defined to be 'an elevation of the cuticle, with an inflamed base, containing pus.' There are five genera of pustular diseases; impetigo, porrigo, ecthyma, variola, and scabies. It is evident that the order of pustulæ is to be considered as quite artificial, in which the diseases are characterized solely by the formation of purulent matter; and perhaps a doubt may arise how far this circumstance is a convenient basis on which a nosological arrangement should be built. In well marked cases, and at certain periods of the disease, the existence of pus is an obvious and striking occurrence, that cannot be easily overlooked or mistaken: but we conceive that in many diseases, which according to Dr. Bateman's system are to be ranked as pustular, no proper pustules will be discoverable; and, on the other hand, we shall often meet with the semblance of pustules, in cases which, in this system, are placed among the vesicles.

The impetigo, which is intended to include the different kinds of moist tetters, and the porrigo, which includes ringworms, scald heads, &c. are well defined genera, and probably are intitled to the appellation of pustular diseases; although, as we e have just remarked, the proper pustular appearance is ten not to be recognized. The directions for the cure of the fferent species of porrigo seem to be judicious, and present a ndid account of the effects of the principal remedies that ive been proposed for the removal of these disagreeable mplaints.

The word ecthyma is used to denote an eruption of large, rd, inflamed pustules, which are scattered over the body, not tended by fever, and not contagious. It is an affection of tle importance in itself: but, as the author observes, 'the agnosis of this eruption from the contagious pustular diseases, well as from some of the secondary appearances of syphilis, of considerable importance in practice, and renders it necesry to notice this genus.'

Though the scabies, or common itch, is a disease in most ases very easily known and discriminated, yet it does not adily find its proper place in a nosological arrangement:

> 'This troublesome disease, which, from its affinity with three rders of eruptive appearances, pustules, vesicles, and papulæ, lmost bids defiance to any attempt to reduce it to an artificial clasfication, is not easily characterized in few words. An extreme titude in the acceptation of the term has indeed been assumed by riters, from Celsus downwards; and no distinct or limited view of he disease has been given, until near our own times. Celsus has inluded other forms of pustular disease among the different species of cabies; and some of the earlier writers, after the revival of learning, onsidered almost all the eruptions, to which the skin is liable, as odifications of this disease: even our countryman, Willis, to whom he contagious nature of true Scabies, as well as its specific remedy, vas well known, has not sufficiently separated it from some other ustular and pruriginous affections.'

The lower classes of people, who from obvious causes have he best opportunity of becoming acquainted with this disease, ave noticed four different varieties; and these have been inroduced into Dr. Bateman's arrangement, under the specific ames of *papuliformis*, *lymphatica*, *purulenta*, and *cachectica*. While, however, he admits the propriety of this division, he bserves 'that the practical discrimination, in many of these ases, is more difficult than in any other order of cutaneous isease.' It is well known that some naturalists have contended or the existence of a peculiar species of insect as the cause of cabies, and that delineations of it have been published with marks of accuracy and authenticity. Yet Dr. Bateman was never able to detect any thing of the kind; and he is disposed to regard their presence, when they do exist, rather as an accidental occurrence than as being essentially connected with the formation of the pustules.

The order of vesicles comprehends seven genera. A vesicle is defined to be 'a small orbicular elevation of the cuticle, containing lymph, which is sometimes clear and colourless, but often opaque, and whitish or pearl coloured. It is succeeded either by scurf, or by a laminated scab.' This definition is, we believe, nosologically correct: but, *practically*, it will often be impossible to detect the distinction between the pustule and the vesicle; since an elevation of the cuticle containing whitish or pearl coloured lymph must, in its external characters, be very nearly allied to a pustule. The seven genera of vesicles are the *chicken-pox*, *cow-pox*, *herpes*, *rupia*, *miliaria*, *eczema*, and *aphtha*. The term herpes, which has been frequently employed in a very vague manner, is restricted by Dr. Bateman 'to a vesicular disease, which, in most of its forms, passes through a regular course of increase, maturation, and decline, and terminates in about ten, twelve, or fourteen days.'

Doctor B. notices six varieties of *herpes*, which appear to be distinguished from each other with considerable accuracy: but we confess that we are not competent, from our own observation, to determine how far the descriptions accord with the actual phænomena of the disease, or are capable of being included under the generic definitions.

Rupia is a genus introduced by this author, and takes its appellation from the sordid condition of the diseased parts; it is thus described:

> 'The rupia is characterized by an appearance of broad and flattish vesicles, in different parts of the body, which do not become confluent: they are slightly inflamed at the base, slow in their progress, and succeeded by an ill-conditioned discharge, which concretes into thin and superficial scabs, that are easily rubbed off, and presently regenerated.' —
>
> 'The eczema is characterized by an eruption of small vesicles, on various parts of the skin, usually set close or crowded together, with little or no inflammation round their bases, and unattended by fever. It is not contagious.'

The most important species of eczema is that which arises from the irritation of mercury, and has lately been described under the appellations of *erythema mercuriale*, *hydrargyria*, &c. It is remarkable that an affection which is of considerable violence, and not of very rare occurrence, should until lately have been little noticed.

The 7th order of tubercle is defined to be 'a small, hard superficial tumour, circumscribed, and permanent, or suppurating partially.' It comprehends eight genera: but, as Dr. Bateman observes that some of them require surgical treatment and some ne are not often seen, we shall remark on only two of them, e acne and the elephantiasis :

' The acne is characterized by an eruption of distinct hard tuber- s, which are sometimes permanent for a considerable length of ne, and sometimes suppurate very slowly and partially. They ually appear on the face, especially on the forehead, temples, and in, and sometimes also on the neck, shoulders, and upper part of e breast ; but never descend to the lower parts of the trunk, or to e extremities. As the progress of each tubercle is slow, and they pear in succession, they are generally seen at the same time in the rious stages of growth and decline ; and, in the more violent cases, e intermixed likewise with the marks or vestiges of those which ve subsided. The eruption occurs almost exclusively in persons of e sanguine temperament, and in the early part of life, from the age puberty to thirty or thirty-five ; but, in those of more exquisite mperament, even later. It is common to both sexes ; but the most vere forms of it are seen in young men.'

This disease, which includes the different varieties of what e usually called scorbutic eruptions in the face, is divided to four species, *simplex*, *punctata*, *indurata*, and *rosacea*. The st species constitutes *the red face*, which is either the effect of reditary temperament or of the immoderate use of spirituous quors. The following remarks on the cure of this unpleasant d obstinate complaint may be interesting to some of our aders :

' The perfect cure of acne rosacea is, in fact, seldom accom- ished ; for, whether it originate in a strong hereditary predisposi- on, or from habitual intemperance, the difficulties in the way of cor- cting the habit of body are almost insurmountable. The regula- on of the diet, in both cases, is important : and when the stomach liver is disordered, in the latter, the symptoms may be sometimes lliated by the liquor potassæ, or other antacids, which seem also have some influence in lessening inflammatory action in the skin. he gentlest restringents should be used externally to the patches of ticulated veins ; such as very dilute spirituous or acetous lotions, ith or without a small proportion of the acetate of lead ; or simple ntments combined with alum, acetate of lead, &c. in small quanti- es. The more purely local and primary the eruption appears to be, e more active may be the astringency of the substances applied it.'

In the section on *Elephantiasis* we have a favourable specimen the author's learning and discrimination. The term *elephan- asis* appearing to have been used in the most inaccurate man- er, and indeed to have been applied to quite different diseases, r. Bateman attempts to clear up these difficulties, and to certain precisely the train of symptoms to which the name is rictly applicable.—The last order, *maculæ*, although necessary to complete the system, consists of affections generally of little moment, and such as scarcely require medical treatment.

Before any person could venture to give a decided opinion respecting the merit of the arrangement of cutaneous diseases which is here presented to the public, by the joint labours of Dr. Willan and Dr. Bateman, it would be necessary that a more minute degree of attention should be paid to this class of complaints than ordinary practice excites or requires: but it is easy to pronounce that these gentlemen are intitled to one great and important commendation, viz. that the terms employed by them are all well defined, and may be readily comprehended. We have no hesitation, therefore, in saying that every practitioner would do well to adopt Dr. Bateman's nomenclature, as a standard by which he should regulate his proceedings; and he will, in the course of his experience, perceive by degrees whether it be founded on just principles, and is sufficient to guide him in all the variety of cases that fall under his notice, or whether it be defective in any of its parts. Should this latter prove to be the result, the precise defect may be easily pointed out, and the requisite alteration be applied, without introducing in this branch of medicine any more of that confusion which has rendered our practice so doubtful and inefficient, in consequence of the uncertainty which has always attached to our language.

Art. VI. *Shipwrecks and Disasters at Sea;* or Historical Narratives of the most noted Calamities and Providential Deliverances, which have resulted from Maritime Enterprize: with a Sketch of various Expedients for preserving the Lives of Mariners. 8vo. 3 Vols. pp. 1479. 1l. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This narrative of nautical disasters is compiled from the records of a period of somewhat more than two centuries; and the examples are selected from the history of various nations, but more particularly from the maritime annals of the English, Dutch, and French. Of our countrymen, the first whose fate is related is Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who was wrecked in 1583; and the long and gloomy catalogue is closed by an account of the loss of the Nautilus sloop of war in the Archipelago, in 1807. Two out of the three volumes are occupied with details of events belonging to the eighteenth century; and those readers, who find their attention interested by such subjects, will here see a full narrative of the fate of the Grosvenor Indiaman in 1772, of the Winterton in 1792, and of the extraordinary but less melancholy adventures of Captain Bligh, who traversed the Indian ocean in an open boat in 1789. The number of recitals exceeds eighty, and many of them comprehend a variety of minute details. It would be endless, therefore, to attempt a summary or classification of all the circumstances recapitulated, both because their number is great and because almost every case seems to be marked by its own peculiar features. Accordingly, after having allotted a portion of our limits to a notice of the attempts made to winter in Greenland, and to a point in our own history which has excited some contradictory observations, we shall proceed to a more welcome topic, — we mean a consideration of the various expedients that have been proposed for the preservation of life in cases of shipwreck.

With regard to Greenland, several instances are recorded in these volumes of seamen being left behind by Dutch and English whale-ships. In some cases, the measure was voluntary, the Dutch merchants being desirous of ascertaining the practicability of establishing a permanent colony in that inhospitable region. The first attempt on the part of the Dutch was made in 1633, when seven of the stoutest and ablest men of the fleet consented, on certain conditions, to make a trial of passing the winter in St. Maurice's island in Greenland. Unhappily, scorbutic complaints made their appearance among them in the month of March, in consequence of the scarcity of fresh provisions; and the progress of the disease affecting the spirits of the men, and incapacitating them from exercise, they soon exhibited symptoms of rapid decay: so that, from the joint effect of the malady and the extreme coldness of the weather, they all expired towards the latter part of April, or the beginning of May. Their countrymen, re-visiting Greenland, according to annual custom, in summer, found only the dead bodies and a journal kept by the ill-fated party. — Another experiment made by the Dutch in the same year, in Spitzbergen, was attended with a different result. The cold was here equally rigorous; and, though the party left behind were provided with various accommodations, as a grate, a stove, and comfortable beds, they were frequently obliged to take violent exercise for the sake of warmth. Fortunately, they had laid in a stock of rein-deer, sea-fowl, and vegetables; all of which being fresh provision, they were preserved in health, and enabled to rejoin their countrymen in the ensuing summer. Encouraged by this success, the Dutch determined to repeat the experiment in the next year. Seven seamen were accordingly left behind, lodged in a warm hut, and provided with various comforts: but, having unhappily been inattentive to the prevention of scurvy, that dreadful disease began to appear towards the end of November, by which time it was too late to seek for green herbs. They were also not fortunate in their efforts to obtain fresh provisions by giving chace to bears and foxes, as these animals did not begin to approach the hut until the seamen had become too weak to manage their guns.

' The sun had disappeared on the 20th of October, nor was he seen again until the 24th of February, when the mariners were so weak as to be constantly confined to their cabins. Two days after, they ceased to be able to write, at that time expressing themselves in a journal thus: " Four of us who still survive, lie flat on the floor of our hut. We think we could still eat, were there only one among us able to get fuel, but none can move for pain; our time is spent in constant prayer, that God, in his mercy, would deliver us from this misery: we are ready whenever he pleases to call us." '

Such is the rigour of the climate at Spitzbergen, that the putrefaction of a dead body is almost imperceptible. The bodies of these seven sufferers, having been deposited in coffins in the earth, with stones laid over them to preserve them from beasts of prey, were inspected about thirty years afterward, and found almost as entire as at the moment of their decease.

We are next to advert to a less melancholy narrative relating to a party of our own seamen, who were left accidentally in Greenland in the year 1630. Eight men having been sent ashore on 15th August, to hunt rein-deer, at a place called Green Harbour, were forced to remain, in consequence of their vessel being driven off the coast by the floating ice. In this alarming situation, their first step was to lay in a stock of rein-deer, as well as of bear's flesh; a precaution to which may be chiefly attributed the contrast afforded by their history and that of the unfortunate Dutchmen:

' A kind of hut had been erected by the Dutch in Bell Sound for coopers employed in the whale fishery, of which the mariners now took possession. It was eighty feet long, and fifty broad, consisting of timber, with a roof of tiles: another smaller hut stood at some distance, which they took down for the purpose of building a compartment within the larger one. This, with considerable labour, was accomplished, and a quantity of wood laid in for fuel.

' Meantime it was expedient to secure a sufficient store of provisions to serve the necessities of the people; and two sea-horses being observed asleep on the ice on the 14th of September, they were struck with harpoons. These animals proved to be an old one and its cub: but the latter, though the mother was dead, would not leave it, and continued swimming about until also killed by the mariners. They were carried ashore, skinned, and pieces of their flesh roasted.

' As there was little chance of obtaining supplies, more than occasionally killing a straggling bear, an exact survey was made of all the provisions; and finding the quantity too small to last through the winter, the people agreed to restrict themselves to one reasonable meal daily.—

'To mend their clothes and shoes, which were all wore out or tore at the lapse of that period, they made thread of rope-yarn, and needles of whale-bone. The nights now began to grow very long, and the cold became so intense that the sea was quite frozen over. From the 14th day of October the sun sunk entirely below the horizon, and, in the irksome time occasioned by his absence, the mariners had leizure to reflect on their friends, wives, and children at home, and their own desolate condition.—

'They were still obliged to watch carefully over the extent of their stores; and, lest fuel might fail towards the end of the year, they daily roasted half a deer, which was put into casks that had also been found ashore.—

'The sun remained below the horizon, and perpetual night prevailed from the first of December until the first of January, when a kind of twilight began.'—

'As the new year commenced, the cold became more intense; and its severity gradually augmented, until blisters would rise on the people's flesh as if they had been burnt with fire; and if they chanced to touch iron, it would stick to their fingers like bird-lime.—

'They had contrived to procure fresh water, which was discharged from a cliff under thick ice; but from the 10th of January, nothing except snow-water could be obtained, until the 20th of May, from snow melted by hot irons.

'The weather being clear, though excessively cold, on the 3d of February the seamen were gladdened by the return of the sun, whose beams gilded the tops of the lofty mountains. On the same day a she-bear and her cub appeared, making their way directly to the hut, whereupon the people hastened to prepare their lances. Awaiting the approach of the animals, and then rushing against them, they killed the old one, but the cub escaped; she was quickly dragged into the hut, and, being flayed, served twenty days for fresh provisions. The people relished the flesh even more than venison. — Not less than forty bears visited the hut in the same manner, of which seven were killed, and afforded such an abundant supply, that the seamen enlarged their allowance to two, and sometimes three meals a-day. The flesh was roasted on a wooden spit, and, by feeding so copiously upon it, they became much stronger; nor was this the only supply, for they caught fifty foxes, which were also roasted. Numbers of sea-fowl were likewise taken, and plenty of their eggs.'—

'The mariners daily repaired to the top of a mountain when the weather would admit, trying to discover whether the open sea was in view, but nothing except ice had for long appeared. On the 24th of May, however, the same day that they hunted the deer, the ice seemed to have dispersed, but a strong easterly wind confined them on the twenty-fifth to their hut. Being all but one collected together to prayers in the smaller hut, they suddenly heard voices. Mutual explanations soon followed, from which the mariners discovered that two Hull ships had arrived in Bell Sound, where they obtained access by the wind driving out the ice the day preceding. The master of one knowing that some mariners had been left there, manned a shallop, a shallop, and gave the crew instructions to march over land, and endeavour to learn what had become of them.—The strangers were not a little astonished to see a number of people in rags, and quite blackened with smoke.'—

'After fourteen days ease and refreshment, the whole perfectly recovered their health, and, having embarked in different ships of the fleet on the 20th of August, reached the river Thames in safety.'

Having now concluded our observations on the inhospitable shores of Greenland, we shall proceed to advert to a particular circumstance in our own history. In the spring of the year 1682, the Duke of York, afterward James II., had a very narrow escape from death by shipwreck on his passage from the Thames to Scotland. The vessel conveying him was the Gloucester man of war, Captain Sir John Berry, and the place of disaster was the sand about 12 leagues from Yarmouth, called the Lemon and Ower. Of three hundred persons on board, more than half perished; and, as a number of friends of the Duke escaped, a report went abroad that partiality had been shewn in saving the passengers. Bishop Burnet goes so far as to say, "The Duke got into a boat and took care of his dogs, and some unknown persons, who were taken, from that earnest care of his, to be his priests. The long boat went off with very few in her, though she might have carried off above eighty more than she did." * It appears, however, that the Duke himself narrowly escaped, and had very little time to shew favour to any individuals in his suite. Sir James Dick, of Prestonfield, one of his followers, having stated that the ship struck at seven o'clock in the morning, adds the following particulars:

'The Duke and the whole that accompanied him were in bed when she struck; and the helm of the ship having broke, the helmsman was killed by the force of it. When the Duke had got on his clothes, he inquired how matters stood, the vessel having nine feet water in the hold, and the sea running in at the gun-ports. All the seamen and passengers were not under command, from every one studying his own safety, whence the Duke was forced to go out at the large window of the cabin, where his little boat was secretly ordered to attend him, lest the passengers and seamen should have so thronged in upon him as to drown the boat. It was accordingly conveyed in such a way that none but the Earl of Winton and the Lord President of the Court of Session, with two of his bed-chamber men, (of whom one was afterwards Duke of Marlborough,) went with him, but were forced to draw their swords to keep the people off. We, seeing his Highness gone, did cause tackle out with great difficulty the ship's boat, whereinto the Earl of Perth got, and then myself, by

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* Burnet's History, Vol. i. p. 523.

leaping off the shrouds into her: the Earl of Marchmont, after me, jumped in upon my shoulders, and then the Laird of Touch, with several others that were to row. Thus we thought the number sufficient for her loading, considering the sea run so high by a wind from north-east, and because we saw another boat close by the one containing the Duke overset by the waves, and the whole people in her drowned, except two who were observed riding on the keel.

'This made us desire to be gone; but before we were aware, twenty or twenty-four seamen leapt in upon us from the shrouds, which induced all the spectators and ourselves to think we were sinking; but having got out of reach, and being so crowded, prevented an hundred more from doing the like.' —

'The difficulties and hazards of us that were in the boat rendered it wonderful that we should all be preserved: had it not been thought that our whole number should have been dead men, I am sure many more would have jumped into the boat above us, where we were so thronged we had no room to stand.' —

'I was in my gown and slippers, lying in bed, when the ship first struck, and escaped in that condition.' —

'When I looked back, I could not see one bit of the whole great ship above water, but about a Scots ell of the staff upon which the royal standard stood.'

After a long recapitulation of melancholy recitals, the compiler of this work proceeds to the more consoling topic of the means of saving life in cases of shipwreck. Every one who is liable to the casualties of the sea ought, he justly remarks, to acquire the art of swimming. Schools for that purpose have been lately established in France, and the acquisition of the art is neither tedious nor difficult. Various expedients for obtaining safety in shipwreck, by means of "life-preservers," have been ascertained and described, many years ago: but the most simple of the whole is a small square frame of open wood, shaped so as to support the head and shoulders above water. This is adopted by the Chinese; and the bamboo, which they use, is from its lightness and buoyancy particularly fitted for the purpose. Fir, or other European timber, would not fail to fulfil the object of preservation: but the size of the machine must necessarily be larger. — The 'cork jacket was invented, nearly seventy years ago, by Dr. Wilkinson, and was instrumental in saving the lives of many persons. It consisted merely of a canvas-jacket, with a quantity of cork sewed within or fastened to it. As an improvement on this contrivance, the public was next presented with the Marine Collar, or belt, with what was called the Marine Spencer. The latter was particularly simple, being merely a girdle of six inches in breadth, drawn close under the arms, and fastened by a strap over each shoulder. Another strap, proceeding from behind and passing between the legs, was fastened to the girdle before to retain it in its place.' A person thus equipped will float, head and shoulders high, in the water. — Mr. Bosquet's life-preserver was, in like manner, a canvas-girdle stuffed with cork-shavings to a considerable thickness, and covering the body from the arm-pits to the loins. It not only keeps a person high upon the water, but shelters him from buffetings on rocks. With such protection, even a woman may carry her child in her arms through a surf in which no boat could live. — The latest mode of applying cork for this humane purpose is seen in the life-preserver known by the name of "the Seaman's Friend." It consists of two large pieces of cork; one fastened on the breast and the other on the back. 'From each of the two corners of the one, a stout strap proceeds to two corners of the other; the straps cross about the middle, and the opening receives the head of the wearer.'

Expedients for supporting the body in water, by the aid of confined air, have been practised in various countries:

> 'The Arabs dwelling on the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates, both men and women, cross these rivers in perfect confidence, with the assistance of inflated goat-skins; and by the same means, the more daring venture to commit depredations on vessels at anchor. They sew the whole skin closely together except one leg, through which, as a tube, it is blown up; then twisting the channel, they hold it firm while engaged in their watery excursions. The inhabitants of Chili obtain still greater convenience by uniting two very large inflated seal-skins, of which all the apertures are carefully secured. A few spars are laid across, whereon one or more can rest in safety, while occupied in fishing or passing rivers.'—
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> 'In the year 1802 Professor Alstromer, a Swede, exhibited the effect of a life-preserver at Helsingoer, near Helsingburg, consisting of a girdle weighing only seven pounds, simple, strong, and light, but we are not more intimately acquainted with its construction. A person provided with it leaped into the sea, where he fired a pistol, ate, drank, and smoked a pipe, to shew that he had the perfect use of his arms, and he seems to have occupied an hour and three quarters in crossing the strait which divides the Swedish coast from Zealand.'

Notwithstanding these successful examples of the use of confined air, it is advisable to resort to no substances except those which are specifically lighter than water; and metal under any form is to be avoided.— In scrutinizing the origin of life-boats, we find reason, as in the case of the life-preservers, to go farther back than the date commonly imagined.

> 'An unimmergeable boat, invented by a French engineer, M. Bernieres, is said to have been exhibited before the King of France in 1771, which, brimfull of water, still carried eight men in safety on the river Seine. To prove its insurmountable stability, a mast was

erected, and a rope fastened to the summit, by which it was forcibly drawn down until touching the water. The rope being suddenly let go, whereby the constraining power ceased to act, the boat immediately regained her proper position.'—

'A life-boat, which has gained greater celebrity both in this island and on the continent than either, originated from a deplorable catastrophe, near Tynemouth, in the year 1789. A vessel struck on the Herd Sands during a storm, which, owing to the imminent danger, it proved impossible to relieve from the shore; and the unfortunate crew dropped one after another into the sea, in sight of numerous spectators. Deeply affected by their fate, the principal inhabitants immediately formed themselves into a committee, and offered a liberal premium to the inventor of a boat, which should be useful in situations of danger. Mr. Henry Greathead, one of the candidates, had remarked, that if a spheriod be divided into quarters, these will float on the curvature; that they cannot be overset or sunk, and will be safely borne over broken water. He thence conceived that a boat, of a figure somewhat analogous, would possess the same properties, and be profitably employed in the deliverance of shipwrecked persons. A model presented by him was, after due consideration, preferred to others, and a boat was immediately constructed upon its principles. The first attempt to render it serviceable was successful in 1790, and it has since contributed to the preservation of thousands of valuable lives. It is unnecessary here to enter into a minute description of Mr. Greathead's life-boat, from being now almost universally known; and the inventor, if he be truly so, has been liberally rewarded with different pecuniary and honorary distinctions.'

It has been of late years proposed to fit up a common ship's boat in such a manner as to be an effectual preservative in times of danger. Empty casks are to be secured by lashings within the boats, and vacant spaces to be filled up with bags or bundles of cork, so as to keep the boat afloat though full of water.

Another important topic for consideration is the method of forming a communication between a vessel in danger and the neighbouring shore. It is well known that more ships are lost in the immediate vicinity of the land than in any other situation; and, as the stranding almost invariably takes place on a lee-shore, any light substance, committed to the wind or water, will be wafted towards the land. A cask thrown overboard, with a rope fastened to it, will reach the shore whether it be full or empty, and persons on land may attach the rope to a stake, so as to render it available to the sufferers in their endeavours to escape to land from the ship. A more effectual plan is to make use of a projectile force in casting a line from a vessel to the shore, or *vice versâ*. The cross-bow might probably be applied with effect on such occasions; the spring of the steel, bent by screws and levers, being likely to carry a line several hundred yards with great precision. A rope fastened to a heavy body may also be safely discharged to a considerable distance from a gun. Lieutenant Bell of the Artillery made, some years ago, several ingenious applications of this principle; and Dr. Carey of Islington followed afterward in the same track: but Captain Manby, Barrack-master at Yarmouth, has lately gone much farther than any of his predecessors. The distinguishing feature in his plan is not to project the line from the ship to the shore, but the reverse:

> 'His whole apparatus consists of a light mortar on its bed, which may be conveyed on a travelling-carriage, with boxes of ammunition, two 24 pound shot with eyes, one barbed shot, 200 fathom of inch-and-half rope, as much deep-sea line; 20 fathom of the rope besides fitted up with two blocks as a gun-tackle purchase; a cot fitted on a stretcher to convey people from the vessel; three iron shod stakes to be driven into the ground for securing the line of communication, a long shallow basket for containing the line projected, and a grapnel. —
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> 'The line of communication, for several yards from its connection with the rope, either consists of plaited leather, or is covered with that substance which is found to be best adapted for resisting the sudden flame of the powder. Immediately on a stranded vessel being discovered, the apparatus is brought to a point, within which the shot will range, so that the line may fall over the vessel. The elevation of the mortar on ordinary occasions should be 15°, and the charge of powder just sufficient to carry the shot the requisite distance.'—
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> 'Captain Manby has devised two different methods of getting out a life-boat, while a heavy surf rolls in upon the shore, both of which merit great commendation. The chief impediment to the use of the most approved life-boat, consists in the difficulty in getting her off the beach in a storm; but all this is overcome with comparative ease by projecting a grapnel from a mortar, which falling beyond the surf, enables the crew of the life-boat to haul themselves through. A more permanent method of accomplishing the same purpose is, in the next place, by constantly keeping a rope extended between two anchors sunk beyond the roll of the surf.'—
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> 'Different honorary testimonies of approbation were bestowed on the plan in general, and the British Parliament voted a very large sum in 1810 to Captain Manby, as an acknowledgment of its utility.'

We must not conclude our notice of this work without some reference to the remarkable point of the possibility of 'stilling the agitation of water by means of oil.' The antients, it seems, were aware that a temporary calm may be produced by the effusion of unctuous substances on a troubled surface; and, in our own day, observations of the same nature have been made by Dr. Franklin and others:

'Captain Anthony Pool relates, that his ship, being one of a fleet, in 1761, whereof there was a ship laden with oil, which escaped through the seams of the casks containing it, and mixing with the water in the hold, both were pumped up together, while it was remarked that the ship's wake was as smooth as a mirror: The longer the pumping continued, the more was the wake enlarged, and, notwithstanding the agitation of the sea continued, the waves did not break.'—

'In the year 1755, Captain May, an experienced navigator of the Low Countries, while lieutenant of the Phœnix ship of war, had two Neapolitan barks laden with oil under convoy in the Mediterranean. The cargo having been a year on board, the vessels containing it were damaged, the oil escaped, and was pumped up with the bilge-water from the hold. A perfect calm, too conspicuous to elude notice, was constantly produced on the surface of the sea all, around both the vessels, while those at a distance sailed in troubled waters. The Phœnix was at this time one of a fleet of 79 vessels, and, after cruizing from Carthagena to Malta, and elsewhere, with five or six weeks of bad weather, she experienced a frightful storm, in the latitude of Lisbon. It was scarce possible for the fleet to shew any sail: and during the whole interval, the two oil vessels were regularly pumped twice a-day, at seven in the morning, and again at sun-set, when part of the cargo was always discharged. Notwithstanding the turbulence of the sea, the oil extended to a great distance, separating and diffusing itself widely around the vessels, and arresting the progress of the waves, by which means they, and others in their immediate vicinity, were in a calm, as perfect as one that followed the storm. Though the billows continued to flow in lofty undulation, their surfaces were smoothed; the smaller waves rolling over them were in general dispersed, nor were breakers visible.'—

'In regard to the method of employing oil, if only designed to smooth the surface of the sea, so as to expose the view of what is below, it is said to be enough to dip a feather in it, which is drawn through the water. If a more important purpose be designed in averting the presence of danger, a quantity must be allowed to escape slowly through a tube, the size of a goose quill, which will be sufficient to quell the turbulence of the waves; and as the effect is gradually lost, the effusion must be repeated.'—

'We must not suppose, however, in here describing the properties of oil, that a calm and level plain is produced by its effusion on the sea,—that the billows cease to rise, and the surface is void of undulation. On the contrary, the swell remains unabated; but a vessel will safely mount the waves, and lie in the vallies between them, for the breakers, which are most of all to be dreaded, disappear. The lofty precipices, which would otherwise overhang the stern, threatening destruction in their fall, gradually decline when under the influence of the repelling fluid, and instead of washing the decks of the vessel from above, elevate the hull on their successive summits.'

As in this compilation the narratives are frequently copied almost literally from the original accounts, the style varies greatly; some of the tales of disaster being well related, while others are encumbered with circumlocution, and rendered heavy by injudicious arrangement. In the concluding sketch, on the subject of preserving lives in shipwreck, (the only part which has pretension to originality,) the reader will discover much useful information. — An index is added: but it is confined within too scanty limits for a book which contains such a miscellaneous mass of particulars.

ART. VII. *The Art of Extempore Public Speaking*, including a Course of Discipline for obtaining the Faculties of Discrimination, Arrangement, and oral Discussion; designed for the Use of Schools and Self-Instruction. By John Rippingham, Author of "Rules for English Composition," &c. 12mo. pp. 264. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Of this work the title is faulty: *ex-tempore* is not an adjective, nor is it an anglicism; and the book treats of orthoepy, and of recitation, not less extensively than of speech-making. An introduction to elocution and rhetoric, however, is not superfluous. The critical taste of the author may be appreciated by his assertion, in the dedication, that Lord Grenville is the greatest orator of the age.

The first rule offers very humble and trivial instructions for the articulation of trisyllables; and an arbitrary list of words is given, which are to be pronounced clearly and distinctly, with an interval of silence after each. No more than one word is to be uttered with the same breath; nor is a humming sound, or a drawling tone, to be carried on from one word to another. A column follows of words divided (as in spelling-books) syllabically by hyphens, in this manner: Ac-qui-esce, Ap-pre-hend, Car-a-van, Cav-al-cade, Cor-re-spond. This section is below the dignity of the subject.—The second rule inveighs against pronouncing *v* for *w*, or *w* for *v*; and a well-chosen list of words is given, in which this error would be fatal to intelligibility: viz. Vail, Wail; Vane, Wane; Vary, Wary; Weal, Veal.—The third rule cautions against vicious aspiration, and places in opposition such words as Aft, Haft; Ail, Hail; Air, Hair; Ale, Hale; Yew, Hew. Among these words, we are here directed to distinguish *Our* and *Hour*; and such distinction may be desirable, but the usage of the language is to pronounce them alike. Mr. Rippingham also advises us to distinguish in pronunciation, as the practice is in the north of England, the words *Wale, Whale; Weal, Wheal;*

Were, Where; Wet, Whet; Wine, Whine.—The fourth rule treats of accent; the fifth, of emphasis; the sixth, of pause; and under each canon are given quotations which supply convenient exercises.

At length, the author reaches his proper subject; which is to teach the attentions that are peculiarly requisite in *public* speaking. Here we will extract a page or two, and subjoin our comments:

‘ THE VOICE.

‘ Rule 7.—Begin gently. Let the tone of your voice, in reading and speaking, be natural and easy.

‘ Rule 8.—Increase the force of your voice, so that you may be heard by the most distant person in the room. But do not bawl: a clear articulation and moderate force of voice will be sufficient.

‘ Rule 9.—If the voice should have imperceptibly become too loud, begin the next sentence with a much lower tone.

‘ Rule 10.—Vary your voice according to the nature of the subject; the solemn, the serious, the vehement, the familiar, the gay, the humorous, or the ironical.

‘ GESTURE.

‘ *Gesture for Reading.*

‘ Rule 11.—Rest the whole weight of the body on the right leg; the other just touching the ground, at the distance at which it would naturally fall, if lifted up to shew that the body does not bear upon it. Let the knees be straight: and the body straight (yet not perpendicular) but inclining to the right.

‘ Rule 12.—Hold the book in the left hand.

‘ Rule 13.—Look at those who are hearing as often as possible: but do not lose the place or forget the words.

‘ Rule 14.—Elevate the right hand when any thing sublime, lofty, or heavenly, is expressed.

‘ Rule 15.—Let the right hand (but not any single finger) point downwards, when any thing low or grovelling is expressed.

‘ *Gesture for Speaking.*

‘ Rule 16.—Begin as in reading. Let the whole weight of the body rest on the right leg; the other just touching the ground, at the distance at which it would naturally fall, if lifted up to shew that the body does not bear upon it. Let the knees be straight and firm, and the body straight, yet not perpendicular, but inclining to the right. Let both arms hang in their natural place by the side.

‘ Rule 17.—Immediately after the first word has been spoken, let the right arm be held out, the palm open, the fingers straight and close, the thumb almost as distant from them as possible, and the flat of the hand neither vertical nor horizontal, but between both.

‘ Rule 18.—When one sentence has been pronounced in this position, and during the utterance of the last word, the right hand, as if lifeless, must drop down to the side.

'Rule 19.—At the beginning of the second sentence; the body, without moving the feet, must poise itself, on the left leg; the left hand must be raised exactly as the right one was before, and continue in this position till the end of the sentence, and then drop as if lifeless.

'Rule 20.—At the third sentence, the body and hands to be as they were during the first: and so on alternately during the whole of the speech.

'Rule 21.—Take care to end each sentence completely, before the next is begun.

'Rule 22.—In vehement, or otherwise impassioned passions, raise the arm which is in action, until it be on a level with the shoulder: let the lower part of the arm (that is, from the elbow-joint,) be inclined toward the head, in the same manner as when taking off the hat; and let the arm be suddenly straightened into its first position the very moment the emphatical word is pronounced.

'Rule 23.—In every movement of the arm, keep the elbow at a distance from the body.

'Rule 24.—Let the eyes be directed to those who are addressed; excepting when the subject requires them to be raised

'Rule 25.—Endeavour to enter into the sense and spirit of every passage, and feel what is expressed. This is the best guide to emphasis, tone, and gesture.'

Several of these rules are obviously just, if superfluously minute: but several others are exposed to the suspicion of being injudicious and improper. We would instance the 17th rule as containing a direction seldom expedient, and frequently absurd. Suppose the Lord's Prayer to be the subject of recitation; how unmeaning, and without motive, would this quaint gesticulation appear? A speech most naturally opens with some such pantomime as a well-dressed man employs to separate a crowd, which he does not care to jostle. "Make way for me; I have claims on your deference." This is a sentiment common to him who *walks the beau*, or who *talks the orator*. To win an easy way, each would naturally adopt similar action. Now this natural action does not display the palm, but the upper surface of the hand, as when a swimmer pushes back the wave on which he rises.

We would moreover instance the 18th rule as containing a direction frequently unwise. The same purpose, or emotion, usually continues for the first three or four sentences of a discourse; and, in this case, the accompanying descriptive gesture should also continue. An air of gentle intreaty, or of bespeaking attention, is commonly the behaviour which belongs to an exordium.

The 19th rule is perhaps applicable when the second sentence is a duplicate of the first, and repeated to the other side of the room, or when it is put in parallel opposition to the

sentence: but it is only in a case of tautology, or of
hesis, that the first two sentences can properly be
ated with identical gestures from alternate sides of the

he 20th rule is here given seriously: but, if Martinus
lerus had been made to bequeath to us an art of sinking
etoric, we much suspect that he too would have enforced
see-saw of the arms,—this right-hand and left, so inge-
sly copied from the alternate dangling of kid-gloves which
Spaniard exhibits in his minuet.

he 22d rule indicates a vague though a vehement panto-
e, somewhat resembling the action of a slinger, and there-
proper perhaps when a bold sentiment has been hazarded,
which the speaker awaits the impression: but here the
n is commanded generally, without specifying the state of
ng with which it is naturally and necessarily associated; as
y gesticulation could be in its place, which is not intimately
ected with the drift and purpose of the discourse.

f all the rules, the concluding one appears to us the best.
person would acquire a gesticulation at once natural and
essive, let him accustom himself when alone to break
e into pantomime. Let the servants and the neighbours
him crazy, or report that he is going on the stage; he
t not regard them, but continue to recite striking passages
re his mirror; and to declaim aloud with hurried
, and reddening cheek, and twanging voice. Let an-
tingle to his finger-ends; let him clench the fist, and
eze the lips. It is by accustoming the whole soul to
with every idea into the appertaining fibre of the frame,
an *animability* of body is acquired, (if we may coin a word,)
ductile vivacity of feeling,—a susceptibility to various
ctions,—a voluntary glow of emotion,—a readiness at ex-
r passion. When this quickness of pathetic impression is
ired, and it is especially favoured by dramatic exercita-
, it will always suffice to let the body obey the soul.
presence of an audience will coerce the madman-like
iculation of solitude, and subdue the carriage into the
ns of grace: but, at first, without a little extravagance and
ng and caricature, a youth cannot learn what are the
ers of impression and expression which he possesses.
tlemen seldom excel in gesticulation, because they dare
go beyond the gentleman during their apprenticeship.

vast portion of this book consists of extracts from various
ors, which the pupil is expected to read aloud, or to
n by heart. They are very moral, but not very appro-
te. Who would expect, from a teacher of eloquence, se-

lect sentences like these? P. 64. 'Put a bridle on thy tongue; set a guard upon thy lips.'—P. 65. 'A talkative man is a nuisance to society; the ear is sick of his babbling.' 'The tongue of the sincere is rooted in his heart; hypocrisy and deceit have no place in his words.' It is surely fair for us here to observe, that he will never excel in oratory who puts a bridle on his tongue, who shuns the reproach of talkativeness, or who is incapable of exerting himself for a client, and making his cause sincerely his own.

Other extracts contained in the second part are equally unskilful; as at p. 107. the fable of the dog and the shadow, which begins thus: 'A dog crossing a little rivulet, with a piece of flesh in his mouth, saw his own shadow represented in the water.' This sentence is full of bad writing: 1st, How was the dog crossing? If he was wading, he could not lose the meat; if he was swimming, he could not see the reflection; it is necessary, therefore, to insert the circumstance that he was crossing on a foot-bridge. 2dly, Rivulet, being itself a diminutive, comprehends the idea of littleness: so that the epithet is a pleonasm, and, which is worse, draws attention to an idea that ought to have been suppressed, because the larger the stream the more probable the loss. 3dly, The dog might see his own shadow, but could not see his shadow represented: he saw himself represented in the water, or rather on the water.—Here are three gross faults in one short sentence. Such vicious writing should not be given as a model, nor indeed in any way exposed to the eye of a young person. Habitually to contemplate the beautiful is the safest direction to the attainment of it.

The third part of this work, which begins at p. 226. gives some rules for English composition, a department of instruction that is too little regarded in our schools. Boys are sent home with a deep knowlege of Latin and Greek, who cannot write a plain common letter neatly, and to the purpose. As a first exercise, the author proposes definition; and he then defines wine to be 'the juice of the grape.' Here again is some want of critical skill; and it is necessary to insert the word *fermented*, since otherwise the definition is imperfect. In all exemplary exercises, and all patterns for imitation, it is important to choose a complete model.

The three concluding rules are thus expressed, and partake rather of the nature of definitions than of that of precepts:

> 'Rule 57.—Interrogation. When men are strongly moved, whatever they would affirm or deny with great earnestness, they put in the form of a question.

'Rule 58.—Exclamations are also the effect of strong emotions of the mind: such as surprise, admiration, joy, grief, and the like.

'Rule 59.—Amplification or climax, consists in heightening all the circumstances of an object or action which we desire to place in a strong light.'

If Mr. Rippingham should ever be induced to undertake a second edition of this book, we recommend the total dismissal of those incipient chapters which treat of grammatical reading, or of the utterance of single words. With the fifth section, which treats of emphasis, begins the department of oratorical reading; and this the rhetorician, not the mere school-master, is to teach. We farther advise a careful revision of his various examples; and a selection of them from purer and better writers,—from the great masters of composition, not from the rabble of mediocrity. We should also deem it desirable that no one rule should remain unexèmplified: several directions here given leave the pupil at a loss as to the inference which he is to draw from them.

Rhetoric is to eloquence what criticism is to poetry, a system of rules inferred from the practice of successful authors: for, as Cicero observes, eloquence does not grow out of art, but art out of eloquence. In fact, the chief use of rules is to teach self-criticism. In practical conflict are formed the ready powers of argument and declamation: but by chastizing the extravagance, dropping the excess, abridging the detail, and smoothing the asperities of a hasty manner, oratory may gradually be rendered more and more beautiful. Vehemence is the gift of native feeling; decoration is the result of comprehensive study.

Art. VIII. *Letters written in a Mahratta Camp during the Year* 1809, descriptive of the Character, Manners, domestic Habits, and religious Ceremonies, of the Mahrattas. With ten coloured Engravings, from Drawings by a native Artist. By Thomas Duer Broughton, Esq., late Commander of the Resident's Escort at the Court of Scindia. 4to. pp. 358. 2l. 8s. Boards. Murray. 1813.

At the beginning of these letters, the reader is apprized that Mr. Broughton had for some time declined to undertake a description of the Mahrattas and their customs, on account of the dullness and deficient interest of the subject. His friends, however, insisted that those incidents and usages, which had lost their attraction to a personal observer, possessed the charm of novelty to an English public; especially as, since the late war, the Mahratta name had become currently known among us. He yielded accordingly to sollicitation, and committed his views to paper; premising that his readers must expect no political secrets, as the intrigues of a Mahratta Durbar are, *on ne peut plus*, dry and disgusting, and as the opportunities of acquiring authentic information on such topics are very limited. He adds another observation of more general importance, which we give in his own words:

'When an English gentleman undertakes to give an account of Indian manners and habits of private life, he labours under many disadvantages. The obstacles which prevent our ever viewing the natives of India in their domestic circles are great and insuperable; such as the restrictions of cast on their side, rank and situation on ours, &c. We do not intermarry with them, as the Portuguese did; nor do we ever mix with them, in the common duties of social life, on terms of equality. What knowledge we have acquired of their domestic arrangements has been gained chiefly by inquiry; and hence we are often led to describe customs and institutions unfavourably, because our own prejudices render us incompetent to feel their propriety, or correctly to judge of their effects. These observations apply more particularly to the Mahrattas, with whom neither we ourselves, nor our Indian fellow-subjects, have little else [*much more*] than merely a political intercourse.'

Mr. B. proceeds to describe very clearly and particularly the districts through which he passed, in his march from Agra to the camp of Scindiah, or, as it ought properly to be spelled, Seendhiya. This march took place at the end of the year 1808, and was performed in rainy and uncomfortable weather. No people, he says, suffer more from cold and wet, (when such weather happens to occur,) than the natives of India; who have no idea of keeping themselves warm by exercise, but cower round the embers of a few burnt sticks, and are rendered objects of pity by a single fall of rain. After having encountered a variety of unpleasant delays, and some dangers, Mr. B. arrived in the course of eleven days at the Mahratta camp, of which he gives this remarkable description:

'*Camp at Soopoor, Jan.* 14. 1809.

'Nothing, having any claim to the appellation of a regular encampment, can well be less so than that of a Mahratta army. On marching days, the *Beenee Wala*, or quarter-master general, moves off at an early hour; and upon reaching the ground where the army is to encamp, he plants a small white flag, to mark the spot where the tents of the Muha Raj (the title by which any Hindoo prince is commonly designated) are to be pitched; and which collectively are termed the *Deooree*.—The shops, called *Dokans*, are pitched in two lines running parallel to each other; and thus form one grand street from the front to the rear of the army. This street often extends from three to four miles.—The different chiefs encamp to the right and left of the principal street; generally, however, in the neighbourhood

d of some particular *Bazar*. Their respective encampments
e without the smallest attention to regularity, cleanliness, or
nce: men, horses, camels, and bullocks are all jumbled to-
n a mass; which mass is surrounded on all sides by others of a
ature, in a continued series of comfortless confusion. This
hat is termed the *Bura Lushkur*, or main army; and is ge-
bout as many hundred yards in breadth, that is from flank to
it is miles in length from front to rear; thus exactly reversing
er of encampment which obtains in the disciplined armies of
.

e shops, which compose the *Bazars*, are mostly formed of
or coarse cloth stretched over a bamboo, or some other stick
dge pole, supported at either end by a forked stick fixed in
nd. These habitations are called *Pals*; and are of all sizes,
ree to eight or nine feet high, and proportionally wide and
ording to the circumstances of the owner. Under these mi-
coverings not only are the goods exposed for sale, but the
f the shopkeeper resides throughout the year, and for many
gether. The wealthiest merchants of the *Bazars* use these
but the military men, and others attached to the camp, ge-
possess a dwelling of somewhat a more comfortable descrip-
gularly made of two or three folds of cloth in thickness,
t one end, and having a flap to keep out the wind and rain
opposite one: these are dignified with the name of *Ruotees*,
e nearer to our ideas of a tent.—
er this account of the common dwellings of the Mahrattas, it
rcely be necessary to add, that they are total strangers to the
s of domestic life. The cheerful fire, and the clean hearth
ded by smiling faces, are as much unknown to them, as the
drawing-room or the crowded theatre. They never feel even
l and cheap comforts of a snug room, or the light of a candle:
the cold weather, huddle round a miserable fire made of horse
dung, or dirty straw collected about their tents; and wrap-
emselves up in a coarse blanket or cotton quilt, contrive, with
of a pipe of bad tobacco, to while away a few hours in list-
lence. In this manner do the more sober of them pass their
s: but such as think that life is bestowed for superior enjoy-
and have a taste for more spirited modes of whiling it away,
the approach of evening to the rack shop, and revel through
t in a state of low debauchery, which could hardly be envied
keenest votary of Comus and his beastly crew.—The liquor
the shops is distilled from the fruit of a tree called *Mouah*: it
as strong as common gin, and is impregnated with a smell
our that would turn the stomach of the stoutest porter in
.'

dhiya is a chief altogether worthy of such followers.
niddle aged, rather low in stature, and has decidedly the
nce of a debauchee. Though engaged in undertakings
ortance, and generally unsuccessful, he troubles himself
ttle with the cares of government. A tiger-fight, an
elephant-

elephant-fight, or even a new supply of paper-kites, has with him charms sufficient to remove the chagrin of disappointed efforts; and this is the more singular because his finances are generally in a very embarrassed condition. His officers and allies, being paid very irregularly, were obliged to borrow money for their daily expences at the ruinous rate of *five per cent. per month.* It is common among the Mahrattas to attempt to enforce payment by sitting *Dhurna*, as it is called, on the debtor; that is, by going to his house or tent and remaining there closely, so as to prevent him from holding intercourse with any persons, except such as the creditor may approve; which strange practice is regulated among the Mahrattas by very explicit laws. The creditor may even prevent his adversary from taking sustenance, provided that he observe similar abstinence himself, so that the strongest stomach carries the day. It is a curious fact that Brahmins are sometimes trained to remain a long time without food, with the view of hiring themselves to sit Dhurna in behalf of those creditors who do not like to expose themselves to so great an inconvenience; and to preserve a Brahmin's life is so sacred a duty, that the debt is in the result generally paid, though never until after a considerable struggle. — We meet in this volume with repeated examples of Seendhiya and his ministers being assailed by their creditors in this unpleasant manner: but the expedient led only to partial payments; and nothing could overcome the habitual vice and improvidence of this unworthy commander. His behaviour at the time of the siege of the fort of Doonee is thus described:

> 'Under the pretence of attending to the operations of the siege, he directed a small suit of tents to be pitched for him in a garden in the rear of the trenches, and there surrounded by a set of parasites and buffoons, he passed his time in one constant round of the grossest debaucheries. Emancipated from his two greatest plagues, his wife and his ministers, he refused to listen to any business; and seemed to think of nothing but fresh modes of whiling away his hours, and indulging his own profligate propensities. Women and low company have been his bane; and appear to have quite corrupted a heart and mind originally meant for better things. Virgin charms have been diligently sought for, and almost daily sacrificed upon the altar of his lusts: and in the conclave of his wretched minions, scenes are said to be enacted for his amusement, so gross, and at the same time as ridiculous, as would stagger belief, and call a blush into the cheeks of the most depraved European. These miscreants are systematic in their infamy; their sports are regularly classed and organized: but, as common language is inadequate to their description, fancy is called in to their aid; and to every new diversion is given a new and unheard of designation.'

The ordinary object of hostile armaments in India is to enforce the payment of taxes; and, with a view of this kind, Seendhiya had brought his principal force, as well as a train of artillery of sixty pieces, against the fort of Doonee. The place and the garrison were so inconsiderable that an European officer, at the head of a few companies, would have reduced it in a week or two: but the Mahrattas found it necessary to establish a line of posts within a musket-shot round the whole wall; and the garrison, after all, cared very little for their preparations. They even ventured to make sallies, carrying off at one time two pieces of besieging artillery, and contriving at another to introduce a reinforcement. Thus went on, week after week, this miserable course of operations, until they ended at last with a compromise of the demands of Seendhiya. From circumstances like these, the public may form some idea of the justice of the claims to fame which are set forth by some of our countrymen who have gained victories in India. It was by oversetting such powers as these that Marquis Wellesley acquired, in the opinion of his admirers, the reputation of a consummate statesman, and gained panegyrics similar to those which the author has lavished on him in his dedication of the present volume.— The following particulars of the Mahratta character are given:

'I have before mentioned that the Mahrattas are strangers to the comforts of domestic society. They seem to be equally so to public attachment: quarrelling to-day with their chief, and always about their pay; to-morrow, with the utmost indifference, ranging themselves on the side of his adversary; and the next day returning to their former master, if he is fool enough to send a deputation, and make a few false promises to lure them back to their duty. This may perhaps be the effect of the wandering and unsettled kind of life they lead: they have no home but a camp; no hope but for pay and plunder: of course that chief who can hold out the fairest prospect of both, will have the best chance of assembling them around his standard. To the same cause must be attributed their power of sustaining deprivations and fatigue; and their apparent cheerfulness and content under a system of domestic arrangement and economy, that would be intolerable to any other set of people throughout India.

'The two classes of Mahrattas are as much distinguished by personal peculiarities, as by *caste* and dress: the Brahmuns are fair, have prominent features, and comely persons; the rest are dark, with broad flat faces, small features, and short square persons; but are very seldom, if ever, stout. I have never been able to discover any quality or propensity they possess, which might be construed into a fitness for the enjoyment of social life. They are deceitful, treacherous, narrow-minded, rapacious, and notorious liars: the only quality they are endowed with, which could, according to our systems of ethics, be placed to the credit side of the account, being candour: for there is not one of the propensities I have enumerated to which a Mahratta would not immediately plead guilty: in his idea of things, they are requisite to form a perfect character: and to all accusations of falsehood,

hood, treachery, extortion, &c. he has one common answer:— "*Mahratta durbar hue,*" 'tis a Mahratta court!'

The Jypoor rulers, against whom Seendhiya's efforts were directed, were much on a par as to integrity with their Mahratta antagonists. Their rule was to pay nothing until they were compelled, after which they would subscribe an agreement, and pay one half of the settled amount, stipulating to discharge the remainder in two instalments after a lapse of time. They made a practice, however, of delaying the payment of the second instalment, on various pretences; and to enforce the last a fresh war was generally necessary. At the time of which Mr. B. writes, the treaty concluded remained for a considerable time unexecuted in any one point. The great distress for money continued accordingly in Seendhiya's camp; and two Khans commanding auxiliary troops were reduced to such straits as to be obliged to sell their spare articles of dress and armour, for subsistence, while the privates of their corps were driven to the miserable expedient of living on field-rats. Riots took place among several battalions; and Mr. B. notices (p. 171.) a party of sepoys who were upbraided for withdrawing from the camp when their pay was *only six months* in arrear. The scenes of disorder exhibited by Indian soldiers, under these circumstances, led him to reflect very seriously (p. 297.) on the fact that the individuals composing the bulk of the British force in India are drawn from that very population which he saw in so tumultuous a condition. No people, however, are more obedient or more easily governed than the Hindoos, as long as they receive justice at the hands of their superiors. In fact, the source of their national misfortunes is to be found in a great measure in the facility with which they allow themselves to be governed. Nothing short of extreme credulity and habits of abject submission could enable such a wretched government as that of Seendhiya to exist. — Of the extent of the superstition of these people, some idea may be formed by the circumstances of the religious solemnity that passes by the name of the Moohurrum:

> 'This is a general mourning, observed by the Moohumedans, to commemorate the death of the Imam Hoosen, the grandson of the prophet: and the universal ardour, with which the Mahrattas, who are Hindoos, participate in its ceremonies, is curious enough. Every one turns *Fuqeer;* that is, he wears some green rags; with a string of green and red cotton yarn, tied up like beads, across his shoulders; and goes about begging from such of his acquaintance as are foolish enough to give him any thing; the term *Fuqeer* implying a religious beggar. Groups of such grotesque figures are to be seen in all directions, wandering about the camp, asking for alms, and calling upon the names of Moohumed, Alee, and Hoosen. The Maha Raj himself even gives into this ridiculous custom; and is a Fuqeer during

the whole of the *Mooharrum*. At the Durbar the other day, he was dressed entirely in green, the mourning of the Moosulmans, with no other ornament, than eight or nine strings of beautiful emeralds round his neck. In this garb, accompanied by a few of his confidential servants, he roams about at night, and visits the different *Taziyus* throughout the camp. These are light frames of split bamboo, made in the form of Mausoleums; covered with gilt and coloured paper, foil, talk, &c., and sometimes ornamented with valuable jewels. They are supposed to represent the tomb of Hoosen; in the inside is laid a clean white cloth for the shroud, with a few flowers; and sometimes a turban is added.—In front of the *Taziyu* a large white cloth is spread; around which the Moosulmans assemble in the evening, and seat themselves. A *Moolla*, or one learned in the laws of Islam, takes his place in the centre, and reads a passage from the *Qoran:* he and his assistant then alternately repeat elegiac stanzas, called *Mursiyus*, descriptive of or alluding to the events which attended the death of Hoosen. Some of these verses are simple and affecting; but the effect they produce upon the audience is wonderful. The stoutest and most rude of the party are often melted into tears; and deep sobs and groans are heard from all around. At the conclusion of this part of the ceremony, they all rise; and, gathering round the *Moolla*, uncover their breasts, which they smite with the right hand, and call upon Hoosen at every blow. At first, the strokes are repeated gently; and the invocations made in an under voice: but by degrees they increase the force of both; till at length they work themselves up to a state of enthusiasm, in which they inflict their blows and raise their exclamations with such violence, that they appear quite frantic.'

We submit the following passage to those gentlemen who believe, with some French philosophers, that the Hindoos are deeply read in the astronomical sciences:

'Early on the morning of the 30th ult. there was an eclipse of the moon; when the whole camp resounded with shouts, and the sound of drums and trumpets. The vulgar opinion of the Hindoos is, that a monster, called *Rahoo*, is attacking the planet; and they make these noises to drive him away. The Hindoos are enjoined to distribute charity during the eclipse; and one rupee, bestowed at that time, is deemed of more effect than a hundred given at any other. Long before three o'clock our camp was filled with beggars of all descriptions. Devotees keep a strict fast; which they do not break, till they see the moon quite cleared of the shadow: unfortunately she now set eclipsed; so that these good people could eat nothing, till they beheld her rise again in full splendour on the following evening.'

In the above extracts, we have endeavoured to lay before our readers several of the most instructive passages in the work; and these and a few others are all that possess a title to attention on the score of general information, the bulk of the volume consisting of a mass of local and particular details. In the course of our perusal, we confess, it occurred to us that Mr. Broughton would have acted more prudently in adhering to his first intention of declining to write at such length on a dull and uninteresting subject, than in complying with the urgency of those friends who prompted him to a contrary course. These objections, however, are not meant to apply to the composition of the book, which is intitled to praise, and sometimes excites regret that it should have been wasted on materials so little entertaining. The reader who travels through a strange work, and has to render himself acquainted with a number of unknown names, submits to a penance which can be repaid only by details of greater interest than Mahratta politics are likely to afford.

The dress and appearance of the Mahrattas are very aptly exhibited by the coloured-etchings which are interspersed throughout this volume.

ART. IX. *A Series of Popular Essays*, illustrative of Principles essentially connected with the Improvement of the Understanding, the Imagination, and the Heart. By Elizabeth Hamilton, Author of Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education, Cottagers of Glenburnie, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

THE fair author of these volumes is deservedly admired for the moral, liberal, and religious turn of her several productions; which in general aim at the cultivation of the juvenile mind, and at the useful direction of early education. Not unknown as a novelist, but still more distinguished as a preceptress, she induces the young to approach her volumes with the hope of amusement, and even the old with the hope of instruction. — Her present work consists of five essays, or rather dissertations, subdivided into many chapters, and preceded by a general introduction, which details the plan of the undertaking.

Essay I. contains observations on the utility of the study of the mind, and on its connection with the improvement of education. An abhorrence of mental labour is here given as the prevailing character of our times: but we are not aware of this idle and inattentive propensity. Young persons do not willingly attend to jargon, nor profess to understand those unmeaning phrases about abstract ideas, which some moralists of the pulpit and of the boarding-school frequently pour forth, with the emphasis of affected admiration: but to real instruction concisely given in plain words, respecting questions of science, or civil history, or geography, or natural philosophy, young persons are rarely averse. Nearly all complaints of dullness and inattention, that we have had the opportunity of investigating, had originated in the attempt of the teacher to make a parrot of the pupil, and to compel the repetition of words not understood, as if they were understood. Some metaphysicians have corrupted what may be called our moral literature, by introducing many terms which, having no prototype in the exterior world, can have no fixed, certain, and immutable signification. Writings, which abound with abstract terms, ought for the most part to be shunned by young persons; lest they should acquire a habit of using and of reasoning with words which they do not comprehend. Miss Hamilton is herself prone to listen too much to the metaphysicians, and seems to consider the mind as a something which is altogether the result of philosophical discipline; whereas the fact is that our souls are born with us, and that one man is from his cradle strong in mind, and another weak; that the arts of education cannot bestow intellect, though they may stock the memory, and may exercise the faculties on objects likely to engage a vital attention. Temper is still more obviously the result of physical causes than intellect; and it frequently obeys, especially in critical cases, its natural direction, in spite of all the hypocrisy which is concealed under the garb of politeness. If extravagances of disposition are to be corrected by discipline, this plan must require the incessant attention of a skilful superintendant; and whether it be ever worth while, or morally excuseable, to sacrifice the entire time of a mature person, whose education has succeeded, in order to prevent inconvenience to another person, whose education is not likely to succeed, may be questioned.

The second essay inquires into the agency of attention in the developement and cultivation of the intellectual powers; and this chapter contains juster and more valuable observations than the preceding. No doubt, attention is in a great degree voluntary; which degree may be increased by discipline; and it is evident that the information given by any one of our senses is obtained with much greater correctness, when it is received with exact attention, than when with a heedless or with a distracted perception. Were we to trust in personal consciousness for the theory of mind, we might suppose the soul to be co-extensive with the body, mobile within it, elastic, and condensable by the will at any part of the organs of sensation to which the mind wishes to remove the seat of attention. In short, the soul would be considered as of a spiritual or gaseous form, held together by a powerful attraction of cohesion between the parts, but always ready to shift its center of gravity, or focus of perception, into any place of its own substance. Wherever this convergence, or acumination, or accumulation, of soul takes place, an increased warmth is felt, and an increased power of detecting the contiguous sensible phænomena. If the soul, bent on seeing a beautiful object, chooses to rush into the eye, the eye-ball becomes in consequence somewhat more distended and more polished, and views with more complete distinctness the picture or the prospect under contemplation. If the soul, bent on hearing a fine melody, chooses to rush into the ear, the organ becomes more elastic, and, after gratification, clammy. During anger, we may feel the soul rush into the fist, try every sinew there which may be wanted to wield a weapon, or to deal a blow, and prompt a chafing of the finger-ends. The phænomena of touch escape in a great degree the avowed notice of the clothed nations: but they strongly corroborate the doctrine of the soul's loco-motive power, and of the increased sensibility of the part in which its head-quarters are assembled. Now it is very questionable whether attention consists in a *rapid* application of the soul, or in an *exclusive* application of it to the sensible phænomena under contemplation. Is it accomplished by accustoming the soul to spring like lightening from eye to ear, to see with a glance and hear with a hint; or is it by accustoming the soul to a still and patient and gradual observation of one thing only, leaving it absent or asleep with respect to contending objects? Probably, exercise facilitates both the quickness and the selection of our notice. — But these are transcendental speculations.

A good illustration afforded by Miss H. is the use of cleanliness in evolving intellect:

'If we invariably find, that where habits of cleanliness and order have been established among the poor, the male and female children are, in the early period of life, equal to each other in point of intelligence; and that where contrary habits prevail, the girls evince a manifest inferiority, it must be to the difference, in respect to the habits of cleanliness and order, that we must look for an explanation of the circumstance. In the former case the attention requisite for preserving cleanliness, and neatness, and order, awakens the perceptions, and gives them perpetual exercise. It is on the female part of the family that these demands upon attention are particularly made. The consequence is, that the daughter of the cleanly peasant, having been taught from infancy to observe every slight alteration produced in the appearance of the objects around her, by any casual spot or stain, and having been compelled to attend to the proper place and situation of every article that pertains to the homely dwelling, acquires habits of observation and activity, which remain with her through every period of life. Destined as she is to labour for a subsistence, those habits are to her of obvious advantage. By the cultivated state of her perceptions she is enabled quickly to learn, and accurately to perform, every species of domestic work, as far as the performance of it requires only the use of her hands and eyes; and though, in many branches of household economy, there is so much minute detail, and the objects of attention are so numerous, as to seem, at first view, extremely intricate, we find from experience, that where the perceptions are quick and accurate, none of those various branches escape attention. And as whatever has been an object of attention makes an impression on the memory, even when the parts of the business are multiplied and intricate, we shall find, that where the perceptions have been cultivated, as above described, it seldom happens that any are neglected or forgotten.'

Essay III. examines the effects, resulting from a peculiar direction of attention, on the power of imagination, and in producing the emotions of taste. This dissertation still continues to apply in detail, and to exemplify with considerable felicity, the use of attention; especially in forming the taste and empowering the fancy. To the works of Alison and of Dugald Stewart, many obligations are displayed and acknowleged. A certain tautology of sentiment, a disposition to repeat and re-echo the same fundamental propositions, accompanied indeed with new illustrations, and applied successively to other though parallel cases, but varied rather to the ear than to the intellect, forms the characteristic of Miss Hamilton's manner. She makes sentences as it were with a multiplying glass; every new facet shifts the position, or alters the dimension, or exhibits a reverse of the thing seen: yet the crowd of objects is merely ideal, and consists but in a polygraphic delineation of the one something to which its focus was first directed.

In the fourth Essay, Miss H. designs to combat the propensity to magnify the idea of self. The dialect of English metaphysics has not a convenient substitute for the French manner of using the word *egotism*. In its primary or proper signification, it implies an excessive use of the pronoun *I*, (in Latin, *ego*,) which, both in conversation and in letter-writing, is a natural but an unpolite practice. In its secondary or metaphoric sense, it designates an excessive regard for self, an arrogance of claim on a person's own behalf, which oversteps the limits of equity. If a man be too much occupied, and loudly occupied, about himself and his own concerns, he is guilty of egotism. It is against this fault that the present writer anxiously inveighs: she justly observes that the propensity to magnify the idea of self is distinct from selfishness and self-love; and that more of vanity than of interestedness is often mixed up with the failing. Like all the inherent tendencies of human nature, egotism has often a beneficial as well as an injurious operation; and the object of the present instructress is to teach not its extirpation, but its regulation. It is to be counteracted by exercising ourselves in magnifying the idea of others, and in giving a preference of attention to the claims not connected with self. These counsels are developed and detailed in a fifth essay, which is intitled an *Inquiry into the Means appointed by Providence for the Developement and Cultivation of the Benevolent Affections.* It is divided into eight chapters, which constitute the mass of the second volume, and are terminated by a concluding summary, which attains a high degree of pious and religious fervour.

Great as is the merit of this long composition, we may not conceal from our readers that it exhibits an inclination to prolixity. Every thing is spun out; and to make a little staple of argument supply the longest possible thread of discourse seems to be the aim and ambition of the spinner. Paley's Natural Theology is a miracle of amplification: but here, with less of exemplary fact, and chiefly by the resources of methodical subdivisions, and of a diction which may emphatically be called *prosing* because it studiously shuns the picturesque or brilliant colouring of poetic eloquence, a larger succession of sheets is thickened into a heavy book. Were we employed to distil back to its essence this fluid mass, and to separate those elemental ideas which are here diluted and accommodated to the thirst of the multitude, we should observe that the first volume is employed to enforce the duty of *attention;* that the second is made to enforce the duty of diverting that attention *from self;* and that the pith, the substance, and the result of the whole may consequently best be expressed and condensed in these two emphatic words: MIND OTHERS.

The study of works on female education may expediently be recommended not only to the mother but to the daughter. They inspire docility, and prepare superintendance. Indeed, it is not to the female world alone that they are likely to be useful: since commonly, as here, they contain a multitude of sage, benevolent, and familiar exhortations, practically sound and elegantly phrased, which are adapted not merely to be read in the parlour but to be proclaimed from the pulpit; which on the week-day would instruct, and on the Sunday would properly amuse.

Art. X. *Observations on the Corn-Laws and the Corn-Trade in 1813 and 1814.* 8vo. pp. 48. Richardson.

Art. XI. *Observations on the Effects of the Corn-Laws,* and of a Rise or Fall in the Price of Corn on the Agriculture and General Wealth of the Country. By the Rev. T. R. Malthus, Professor of Political Economy at the East India College, Hertfordshire. 8vo. pp. 44. 2s. Johnson. 1814.

Art. XII. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. George Rose,* in the House of Commons, 5th May 1814, on the Subject of the Corn-Laws. 8vo. pp. 79. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

Art. XIII. *The Substance of the Speech of Charles Callis Western,* Esq., in the House of Commons, May 14. With additional Observations on the Subject of the Corn-Laws. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

Art. XIV. *A Letter on the Corn-Laws.* By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. pp. 89. 3s. Longman and Co. 1814.

Although the subject of the trade in corn, and of the influence of legislative enactments with respect to it, is at all times interesting, it has at the present moment particular attraction as being an object of Parliamentary discussion and of new propositions. Our readers, therefore, will probably thank us for bringing before them, at one view, the contents of the tracts of which the titles are placed at the head of this article, and for dwelling on them at some length. The author of the first of them appears to have been among the earliest of those who have employed their pens on this topic; and, from the practical information which his pamphlet contains, we infer that he is a corn-dealer. At the close of his preface, he signs himself John Brickwood. He is a friend to our old corn-laws, and discusses them in a manner which shews that he did not anticipate the storm which the attempt to revive them has excited. Apparently, he deemed it impossible that, while other branches of industry enjoyed legislative protection, the same safeguard would be withholden from agriculture: but, if we correctly understand his meaning, he regards as too high the scale of duties which was lately rejected by parliament, — namely, 24s. per quarter on foreign wheat, whenever the average of the United Kingdoms should be at or under 105s. 2d. per quarter, — of 2s. 6d. per quarter, whenever the average should be at or above 105s. 2d. and under 135s. 2d. per quarter, — and of 6d. per quarter, when the average should be at or above 135s. 2d. per quarter. Mr. Brickwood would not have the duties so heavy as to amount to a prohibition. 'To prohibit importation,' he says, 'would not only be to reject abundance, but would be contrary to the policy

policy of rendering us the emporium for all commodities from every country, whether coming in exchange for our manufactures or allured by our capital. It is (he adds) essential to the prosperity of those of our manufactures which are consumed in continental corn-countries, that we should not only encourage the consumption of their corn, but also in order to keep down their cost in the markets in which they enter into competition with foreign manufactures.'

Mr. B. seems to be anxious to impress on his readers the following facts, viz. that, under the old system of the corn-laws, Great Britain was an exporting country; that the high price of provisions rendered her such in a small degree in the year 1811; that the climate and soil of Great Britain are in the best manner adapted to the cultivation of wheat; and that policy requires that our West India colonies should derive their supplies of corn from the mother-country.

Those who are to legislate on this subject will not, by a perusal of this pamphlet, throw away their time. It is written in a simple and unaffected manner, and is equally pleasing and instructive.

In the tract which stands second in our list, no opinion is given on the general question: the eminent author professing merely to state the advantages and disadvantages on each side, without pronouncing between them. Its determination, according to him, will depend on the answers to the following queries: Would the United Kingdom, if the trade in corn were free, grow an independent supply of corn? If that should not be the case, is such a supply so desirable, as to justify the interference of the legislature; and, if such interference should be deemed proper, what restrictions are best adapted to attain the end in view? By none, we apprehend, will it be disputed that, if the trade in corn were free, we should import largely. As we might expect from a person so conversant with political economy, though Mr. Malthus strictly maintains his character of neutrality, he cannot conceal the raptures which he feels while he sets forth the simple, regular, and beneficial operations of free trade, and the admirable system which it establishes in human transactions. By this author it cannot but be admitted that, viewed in a commercial light, freedom of trade is incomparably the most eligible course. Two considerations seem principally to induce him to regard the question as balanced; the one, 'the inconvenience which would attend the removal of a system of long standing, by the provisions of which the price of corn in this country has been raised above the level of the rest of Europe;' the other, 'the risk which would be run by making a considerable part of our population depend upon a foreign a foreign supply of grain, whereby the country would be exposed to those vicissitudes and changes in the channels of commerce to which manufacturing states are of necessity subject.' He tells us that, if such a juncture as that which took place in 1812 were ever again to arise, the distresses which our manufacturers then suffered would be nothing, compared with the wide-wasting calamity which would in that case be experienced. He recommends moderation to both parties; the sticklers for free trade are reminded 'that cheapness of corn will not be an unmixed good; and that, if it takes place, they will see a sudden stop put to the progress of our cultivation, and that it will even suffer some diminution.' On the other hand, the advocates of restrictions are apprized that, if the methods proposed by them are adopted, 'they are not to expect that the eminence of agriculture can be maintained without injuring other branches of national industry, and causing a declension in them which ultimately may affect agriculture itself.' In whichever way, Mr. M. adds, the question is decided, evils must be produced, and sacrifices endured.

When we consider what light the science of political economy throws on subjects like the present, and what an eminent master of it we have in the present author,—that he is not only well acquainted with its public roads and highways, but that its byepaths and lanes, and all its recesses and corners, are familiarly known to him; — that he is not only a proficient in it of the first order, but that he has enriched it with greater discoveries and more extended its boundaries than any other writer, with the exception of its illustrious founder, — we must admit that the neutrality of such a person is of great weight in the scale of the corn-laws. As he is, we believe, the only professor of political economy in the united kingdom, occupying this situation he seemed to be officially required to impart information to the public on the present important question. This call he has not only obeyed, but he has fulfilled his task in a manner that is worthy of his high reputation, and will give satisfaction to every intelligent reader. His performance, while it pretends to nothing out of the ordinary course, displays a soundness of judgment, a nicety of discrimination, a closeness of reasoning, and a precision of language, which are rarely manifested in the productions of the day. Whether he exposes the errors of his predecessors, states the points on which the question turns, or lays down the qualifications with which either set of measures must be adopted, we equally admire the efforts of his pen, and in every page recognize the author of the "Essay on Population:" but no where is he more himself than when he shews, in opposition to Dr. Smith, that corn is subject to the same economical laws with other articles of human dealing. — While we are glad that a work of this neutral character has made its appearance, we at the same time feel a wish that, for the sake of science, the present occasion may not be suffered to pass without some zealous disciple of political economy asserting the freedom of trade; and claiming that liberty in favour of the consumer, which the legislature, by a recent law, has established in favour of the grower. Not only persons who feel an interest in public measures will cast a keen eye over these pages, they will also engage the attention of those to whom a subject well treated imparts gratification.

From academic bowers, we are transported to the busy haunts of men; — from the lectures of the philosopher, we are called to listen to the counsels of a man of business. The present question has engaged the exertions of the Right Honourable George Rose, who here displays laudable zeal, and his characteristic industry. Two men less resembling each other than the professor just mentioned and this great placeman are rarely seen engaged in the same pursuit: but, dissimilar as are their views and trains of thinking, and although they move in a different course, they here support the same conclusion; each requiring the restrictions on the importation of corn to be moderate. To this coincidence between persons so opposite, we ascribe considerable weight; the man of detail guided by sound sense and observation, and the sage conducted by the hand of philosophy, meet at this point; the instincts of the one and the demonstration of the other direct them to the same object.

Although from his former habits we should not have expected it, Mr. Rose shews himself on this occasion to be an acute and able controversialist. Indeed, his examination of the late report made to the House of Commons on the corn-laws is a masterly criticism, and detects errors in it which perhaps exceed those of any similar document. This inaccuracy alone, he observes, renders it unfit to be made the foundation of an important legislative enactment; and, though he admits that the measures which it recommends are in analogy with former similar proceedings, he shews that the innovations which it proposed to introduce are so considerable as to require a longer time for discussion than could be obtained at so late a period of the session. He objects very much to the bill in favour of exportation; and here we are obliged to separate from our brother critic. Free exportation falls equally with free importation within our principles. We do not a little wonder that so skilful a combatant should not have pressed his adversaries to disclose the reasons for the severance made on this occasion between the case of the grower and that of the consumer; and to shew why trade is to be free against the latter, while it is to be restricted when it operates in his favour? How came he not to call for a statement of the grounds on which they justify this apparent partiality? Reasonings savouring of the sentimental might not very well become Mr. Rose, nor do they figure much in his pages; and though it be true that considerations of humanity speak powerfully in favour of his conclusions, yet it is not less clear that those of policy alone are sufficient for his purpose. Were men mere automata, incapable of suffering distress and pain from oppressive enactments, or of being pinched by want and hunger, still Mr. Rose's objections would be well founded.

The case of this veteran statesman is somewhat curious. Having, during the whole of his active life, assisted in imposing those burdens on the country under which it now groans, having never been known to object to any measure on popular or constitutional grounds, but on the contrary having been always regarded as the most pliant of men in office, and supposed to have no will but that of his principals, he has lately shewn himself the champion of the popular side of the present question, has been posted on our walls as the friend of the poor, and been charged by *patriots* with being *seditious!* Though, however, Mr. Rose has incurred the displeasure of land-holders, he is very averse from an entire freedom of trade as applied to corn; and he is a friend to restrictions, equally with the committee which he arraigns: he only objects to the scale on which they have been framed, and with which he professes (as we think, not without reason,) to be shocked.

On the side of the arena opposite to that on which Mr. Rose appears, we find Mr. Western. This gentleman comes forwards as the avowed defender of the corn-laws, but professes to be a warm friend and admirer of the freedom of trade. If, says he, an entire freedom of trade could be established, it would be for the advantage of mankind in general; and yet he elsewhere states that, 'on the plan of free import, even supposing the foreign trade to receive no interruption, the consumer would be miserably disappointed in his expectation of producing a cheaper or more abundant supply.' He observes, with much apparent complacency, that 'the duties imposed on importation by the old corn-laws amounted to a prohibition;' while, from the praises which he takes every occasion to bestow on them, we infer that laws which would have a similar present effect would meet with his cordial approbation. Apprehensions that the restrictions should be carried too far are never expressed by him, while he avows his fears that they may not be sufficiently high. Our old corn-laws are extolled for having, as he asserts, rendered us an exporting country; and he inveighs against our later legislation, because under it we have uniformly been large importers: but may it not be asked what signifies it that we have exported at one time and imported at another, unless it be shewn to what cause this difference is to be ascribed? Will Mr. Western say that corn has been produced in less quantities in later times; or rather must he not, and does he not in these pages, distinctly admit that its production has increased in a degree that almost surpasses belief? As Mr. Western cannot deny this to be the case, he is driven to contend that, under such legislation as he would establish, the abundance would have been much greater: but no attempt is made to shew how this would be effected. The honourable member can see no limit to our possible production, but the limit of demand! He was not, we dare say, aware that, when he thus expressed himself, he was asserting the direct reverse of a proposition which forms as it were the text of a celebrated modern treatise*,—a treatise which has conferred immortality on its author, and placed him in the foremost rank of philosophers. Until free trade and the restrictions on it shall have changed places, and the latter be made the rule and the former the exception, the present speech can receive from intelligent men no other commendation than that of being well meant. Mr. Western is a valuable member of parliament, and a very worthy private gentleman; and if he appears too exclusively to consult the interest of the grower, it must be recollected that in his mind such interest is identified with that of the consumer.

A nobleman of great abilities, who, when any question affecting the general welfare is in agitation, uniformly displays plebeian industry and energy, closes our present list of publicists. Like Mr. Western, he is the warm advocate of the corn-laws, and is equally anxious not to be supposed to be wanting in respect for free trade. The two staunch whigs seem as it were to vie with each other in professions of this kind: but, if we believe them, free trade, although most excellent, is only such in given circumstances,—circumstances which unfortunately never have been and are never likely to be realized. While much general praise is bestowed by both these senators on free trade, the real objects of their partiality are the protecting duties, and the monopoly of the home-market. These they recommend with equal zeal and earnestness to the support as well of the consumer as the grower;—these, they tell us, are the only sure and permanent sources of abundance, and ultimately even of cheapness!

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* See Malthus's Essay on Population.

In perusing the greater part of the present labours of Lord Lauderdale, we were surprized to perceive that he did not advert to those obvious considerations, which overset the principal positions that his work is intended to establish. It is not until near the close of it that any allusion is made to them; and they are, when we find them, very briefly stated, and as slightly noticed. These are, in the words of the author, 'our increased population, the greater number of horses and cattle at this day maintained, and an augmentation of consumption arising from our present opulence.' Had the noble Earl given as much consideration to these facts as to the topics before us, his present tract, we are persuaded, would never have seen the light; and, if he were now to take them up and expatiate on them to the same extent and with the same ability which he employs in these pages, he would completely refute his own publication, and produce a work more worthy of his talents, and more consistent with his principles. If he would compare the agriculture of this day, as it respects the quantity of land and the capital invested in it, the manner of carrying it on, and the amount of its produce, with the agriculture of his admired times, —if he would compare the improvements which have been made in it, and the extension which it has undergone during the latter part of the period which he decries, with its progress in any part of our history, or at any time in any country, — we have no doubt that he would find it to be without parallel. Surely, if he had asked his intelligent mind what proportion the most abundant year of his favorite epoch bears to our present annual produce, the repeated praises of the same times and the corresponding censures of those which followed would have found no place in the present 'Letter.' Is it fair, then, is it reasonable, is it worthy of a liberal manly mind, to refer to our own agriculture as something that languishes, or advances slowly? The noble author says that agriculture has not made so rapid a progress as some other branches of industry: but, admitting this to be the fact, what follows? Is the cause of the difference to be found in human negligence, or in the nature of things? Is Lord Lauderdale to have it impressed on him, for the first time, that the machinery concerned in the manufacture of corn, if we may so express ourselves, is incapable of being extended within our own dominions beyond a certain limit, and in course that there is a limit to the produce that can be derived from it, — although this limit cannot be seen by Mr. Western? Who knows better than the noble author, how little can be effected by legislation for the necessary arts? Although very rash assertions

tions occur in his present tract, he will not deliberately deny that, from legislative interference, injury more frequently arises than benefit. He well recollects the celebrated answer of the Lyonese merchants, *Laissez nous faire*, which has since grown into an axiom. Will he insist that it would not have been better for British agriculture if it had never been made the subject of legislation?

With regard to the exportation of corn, are we not precisely in the same situation in which we should have been, had no law ever been made on this point? All the untenable positions which occur in Mr. Western's speech, with scarcely a single exception, are not less broadly laid down by Lord Lauderdale; who, equally with Mr. W., disregards the received laws of political economy, and equally excludes the agency of free trade from our foreign concerns. We are here taught that our distresses have been caused, not by our departing from free trade, but by our not having departed sufficiently from it; that our manufactures owe their flourishing state to legislative enactments; that, if any branch of industry is to be advanced, it must be by legislative provisions; that it must be fenced by protecting duties; that an established and favoured branch of industry requires the aid of bounties; that prohibitions produce abundance; and that monopoly causes cheapness. It is curious to observe how confidently these two statesmen ascribe the abundance of their favourite period to the legislation of that day; with which, except as far as it removed the mischiefs arising from former pernicious laws, we believe it had just as much connection as with the Acts of Uniformity and Toleration. Mr. W. and Lord L. seem at times to forget that abundance is a relative term, and not to be aware what a pitiful figure the abundance of their chosen epoch would make by the side of our scarcities. It would have gratified us much, if it had been attempted to be shewn in what manner legislation could have promoted agricultural improvements, beyond the effect produced by the high prices of late years. Would prohibitions, would the monopoly of the home market, would bounties on exportation, which are here so confidently recommended, have superseded, or in the least obviated, our late distresses?

Lord Lauderdale criticizes with great acuteness, and exposes with much ability, an erroneous observation which Dr. Smith uses as an argument against bounties: but thence his Lordship too hastily concludes that the proposition, which the argument was brought to overturn, is established. The abilities and intelligence of the noble Earl are well known; he has at times devoted much attention to the study of political economy, and has thrown light on several of its doctrines: but we do not think that he is intitled to place himself on the same platform with the immortal author of the "Treatise on the Wealth of Nations:"—much less has he any right to assume a sort of superiority over that profound writer, or to treat him as if he had only palmed errors on the world. Surely a more appropriate epithet than *voluminous* might have been applied to a work which reflected lustre on the age in which it appeared, and which is not exceeded in utility by any human production.

We must not forget to state that the last two authors wholly overlook the prejudice which would be occasioned to our manufactures by the legislation for which they contend; and that they do not at all advert to the objections which apply to excessive restrictions. Lord Lauderdale contends that, in the case of free trade being allowed, our taxes have the effect of a bounty in favour of the foreign grower. If this be the case, what reason can be urged to shew that foreign corn should not be liable to taxation, but should be on a better footing than that which is raised at home? If our necessities require that the corn which we raise should be taxed, surely the corn which we import should be subjected to a like imposition. Such a tax would not be a duty on importation, but a mere financial measure, a matter of necessary regulation. — We are wholly unable to discover in what manner the tragic tale of the Vizier, or the relation of the tyrannical exactions and the impolitic distributions of corn among the antient Romans, bear on any practice relating to the present subject which prevails in this country.

The tract of Lord Lauderdale shews, as strongly as any that has ever fallen in our way, the powerful influence which preconceived notions may exercise over a vigorous and enlightened mind. We can no otherwise account for the many instances of loose observation and inconclusive reasoning, which a writer of such acknowleged ability and industry has here betrayed.

ART. XV. *Essays on the Principles of Political Philosophy,* designed to illustrate and establish the Civil and Religious Rights of Man; chiefly in reference to the present State of the British Empire. Inscribed by Permission to S. Whitbread, Esq., M.P. By Thomas Finch. 8vo. pp. 523. Baldwin. 1812.

THE author of this work seems to entertain a humble opinion of himself, but a very exalted one of us or of some of our brethren; since he deprecates the sentence of criticism on his performance, and wishes his reviewers to confine their functions to giving a fair analysis of his labours:

'—— Should it be summoned to the tribunal of those learned critics, by whose *dictum* the reputation of an author must of course stand or fall, he is apprehensive that its faults will render it impossible for them to perceive its excellences, and that a few sentences will be deemed sufficient to seal its doom. He would not however implore their compassion, but simply wish them to act upon that common principle of social justice which he has endeavoured to inculcate, and be careful to exhibit a true portrait of the book, and not a caricature. But though he has not the vanity to imagine that it will afford either information or pleasure to those profound scholars, to whose omniscient eye there can of course be nothing new; yet, he presumes to hope that a candid and enlightened, though less experienced and accomplished public, for whom the following essays are intended, will derive from their perusal a sufficient recompence, and not allow them to be classed with the useless and unnecessary productions of a free press.'

Excellence is a strong term for a person to use when speaking of his own performance; and it is not happily placed in a sentence in which no ordinary degree of modesty is affected. If, however, we quarrel with the term as coming from the author on such an occasion, we by no means assert that it is inapplicable. We know not whether he ranks us among the *profound scholars who are blessed with an omniscient eye*, but, with such an eye as we possess, *the faults of the work do not render it impossible for us to perceive its excellences.* Faults we admit that it has, but in our apprehension it affords numerous and prominent instances of merit. As to passing sentence on the literary character of the work, we must observe that due pains for attaining eminence in this respect so much assist the object which an author has in view, and confer on him such distinction, that excuses on this score should rarely be allowed. At the same time, we do not mean to deny that in some cases the importance of the design and of the matter may be such as to allow of an availing plea in favour of imperfections of manner; and, as far as value of matter is concerned, strong ground is laid to intitle this author to the indulgence which is here sollicited: but this, of itself, we can by no means receive as a sufficient plea, and something farther must be shewn before a claim can be made good to such an exemption. We should, however, feel very much inclined to comply with this request of the author, had he not himself interposed two serious obstacles in our way; which are the ostentatious title given to his work, and the luxuriance of its style. He who professes to treat on *Political Philosophy* should have nothing to dread from the *omniscient eye* of the *profound scholar*, but be in a situation to set the *learned critic* at defiance; and an author, who professes to feel so much diffidence with respect to his performance, should have chosen a style less studied and flowery than that which Mr. Finch has adopted. Thus much of criticism is, we conceive, rendered indispensible on our part. We are besides of opinion that the two circumstances to which we now advert will prove seriously injurious to the success of the work. With a more modest and intelligible designation, and a more simple diction, we should have thought that it would have had a fair chance for some share of popularity; and we shall be glad if the causes, which we have mentioned, do not prevent this from being the case.

The author desires that we should be careful to exhibit *a true portrait of the book*, and *not a caricature*. We should make a very ill use of our *profundity* and *omniscience*, if we were capable of acting so unfair and dishonourable a part as he deprecates; which, however, we can assure him we should not have done, had no hint to that effect been given us. In order the more surely to comply with this request, we shall let the author speak frequently for himself; so that, whatever impression the public receives, he can lay no blame at our door. We also wish here to observe that the objects proposed in this volume, and the views disclosed in it, (with a few exceptions,) fall in so much with our own notions, that we are very far from feeling an inclination to withhold from it any praise which is justly its due: on the contrary, we should think that we rendered a service to our country, if we could assist in diffusing the principles which it asserts and recommends.

According to Mr. Finch, two distinct principles are universally inherent in the nature of man, having different tendencies; the one he calls the spirit of independence, and the other, the social principle. The first of these, if not restrained, would render man wholly incapable of subordination, and lead him to seek boundless domination over others; while the second, if not properly checked and regulated, would accommodate itself to the most abject slavery. He states that 'these vigorous qualities indeed, being opposed in their native tendency, powerfully counteract each other's influence, and operate like the centrifugal and gravitating laws of nature which give to the planetary orbits their prescribed circumference.' He then asks, 'What but equity can preserve an even balance in the moral system, and render the movements of society harmonious and regular?'

In our turn we beg leave to ask, what is this *equity* to which so very important a function is assigned? Among us, equity bears one of two senses; the one general, and the other restricted. In its general sense, it means nearly the same thing with justice; in its restricted sense, it expresses those heads of justice, of which certain of our municipal courts take cognizance, and those rules which they observe in its distribution. Mr. Finch seems to be partial to the term, and makes frequent use of it in the early part of the work: but he never defines it, and consequently his subject remains involved in a considerable degree of obscurity.

Each of these principles, Mr. F. contends, is to be fostered and cherished within certain bounds: but care is to be taken that the former does not entrench on the rights of others, and that the latter is limited by a due regard to the public good and the just claims of our brethren. Without an exact balance being preserved between these principles, our nature can never arrive at excellence. The author then shews that this balance can only be maintained under a free government; and hence he infers that such a form of government is alone suited to our nature:

'Slavery and unlimited independence, therefore, are neither of them conducive to the welfare of man. Both extremes are inimical to his present happiness, and subversive of those designs which involve the glory of terrestrial destination. He can neither improve his moral faculties, accomplish the purposes of his intellectual being, nor realize that felicity which the Creator of all things designed him to enjoy, in the confines of abject servitude, or in the boundless freedom of solitary life. The tendencies of conditions so opposite may seem diversified in their immediate consequences, but their ultimate impressions on the character will be obviously reoognized by a similarity of debasing qualities.

'What then is the province of a wise system of regulations instituted by a society of human beings, but to reconcile these contending principles, and confirm between them an alliance of reciprocal equality? Such a system repels the lawless claims of despotic independence, and regulates their enjoyments by the rules of general usefulness. It enables mankind to combine their native rights with social privileges, and move in those orbits which exalt the mind, and refine the human character. Under its government we can remain free without being ferocious, and enjoy society without becoming servile and base. We have independence sufficient to secure us from the violence of oppression, and are no further subject to authority than subjection itself is reconcilable with social dignity, and subservient to the greatest good. Equity indeed is the law that governs, and under its government wisdom flourishes, and mankind are happy beneath its shade.'

The author illustrates his theory by a reference to the rise, changes, and revolutions of governments which occurred in the more early ages of the world, and which he recapitulates in a concise and perspicuous manner. — The reader will perceive from the subsequent passage to what class of politicians Mr. Finch belongs:

'In confirmation of these sentiments, we might deduce sufficient evidence by appealing to the recent vicissitudes of revolutionary France. — A few illustrious men, animated by that sacred love of liberty which had been fanned into a flame by the independence of the western world, resolved on one of the noblest and most philanthropic projects that was ever attempted among the human race, — the peaceful restoration of a great people to the full enjoyment of their long lost rights! But the nation itself, trained up beneath the iron hand of despotism, though ready for revolt, were strangers to the spirit of true freedom. Its voice indeed engaged attention, and the hope of its enjoyment filled them with transport. But the transition was too abrupt; it intoxicated them with a momentary joy, and that joy led to phrensy. They knew not that liberty consists in justice, and is hostile to the convulsions of licentiousness and caprice, — that it loves peace instead of contention, and has no delight to familiarize itself with bloody scenes. Their minds, thus lamentably ill-adapted to the freedom which others had prepared for them, easily became the prey of ferocious demagogues, and the deluded votaries of contending chiefs. Hence, furious democrats who assumed the mask of liberty on purpose to satiate their vile ambition, successively obtained amongst them the most despotic sway, till an enterprising and victorious hero at length completely overturned their republican independence with all its associate train, and by a succession of the most amazing triumphs vanquished every opposing despot, and raised himself to the summit of imperial power. Had the love of liberty taken up its permanent abode among them, scenes so opposite could never have been witnessed with such enthusiastic joy, nor could these scourges of the human species so easily have accomplished their ruthless projects. But the love of splendour and change vanquished their desire of independence, and caused them to hail those triumphs which entombed their liberties. Surrounding nations indeed, instead of facilitating the progress of freedom, basely conspired against its reviving cause, and accelerated those conquests by which Europe lies prostrate at the feet of an ambitious man. To these combined causes, therefore, may be traced those astonishing vicissitudes which the political state of our hemisphere has recently undergone.'

It hence pretty clearly appears that Mr. F. has not taken up his pen to apologize for abuses, to screen corruption, or to vindicate or palliate dubious measures; indeed, he cannot be suspected of so doing, who inscribes his work in a very laudatory dedication to Mr. Whitbread. We were truly glad to find that a writer, whose love of liberty and zeal in its cause are testified in every page of his work, sees something in our constitution besides matter for censure and ridicule, something deserving of admiration and gratitude. He thus expresses himself respecting it:

'Britain enjoys a constitution which the wisest and best of men have delineated in terms of rapture, — as a constitution that secures public liberty from the grasp of ambitious men, and facilitates the perpetual administration of impartial equity. It is a constitution, indeed, pre-eminently adapted to the nation that acknowledges its authority; and it has therefore remained indissoluble through an extended period. Our boast of its fundamental principles is rational and just. It is in vain that we look through the ages of antiquity or investigate the history of modern kingdoms, to find a constitution whose permanent advantages can be parallelled with our own. But even the far-famed republics of Greece and Rome, ineffectually attempted to secure the peaceful and continued enjoyment of those essential rights and civil liberties, which are recognized and established by the laws of Britain.

'The constitution of England, it is true, did not result from the spontaneous agreement of human tribes, when first associated in a civilized state. It was not the voluntary appointment of a legislative assembly chosen by the general voice to institute a government under which they could enjoy repose. It did not at once assume its present form, nor was it established at a given period, as a constitution perfectly adapted to promote the political prosperity of a free people. But it was torn by degrees from the devouring grasp of tyranny, and is in fact the workmanship of succeeding ages. Our forefathers, though subject to the rule of despotic princes, breathed a noble and independent spirit. They knew not indeed by what process tyrany could be at once annihilated; but by incessant vigilance and a steady perseverance in defending their native rights, they curtailed the power of kings, — extended the laws of equity, — abolished the feudal system, — set bounds to the prerogatives of the great,—secured to us the right of framing our own laws,—and established the foundation of our national prosperity. Their memory therefore should be dear in our recollection; and the fruits of their wisdom, fidelity, and patriotic zeal, should be shielded from corruption, and preserved to posterity with the tenderest care.'

We shall, however, do this author great injustice if, because he admires the fundamental principles of our constitution, we conclude that he is blind to its defects; or that he is not fully apprized of those injuries which it has received from time, and the course of events. It will, on the contrary, be found that his present labours are principally directed to lay open these defects and injuries, and to shew the necessity of speedily removing them. Though an ardent lover of liberty, though he sets the highest value upon it, and deems it essential to the perfection of our nature, he seems for the most part to be satisfied with such a portion of it as may be enjoyed under the British constitution. In the following extract, we have his sentiments on the subject of monarchy:

'At first view of the subject, indeed, it seems grossly absurd that the kingly power should be deemed hereditary, or that one man should have a birth-right claim to rule over others. It seems ridiculous to provide future generations with a race of kings, or to establish a covenant with the rulers of posterity. Reason would rather say, let posterity have the choice of its own princes, and the institution of its own laws. Let us not imagine that political wisdom will die with the present age, or that mankind will in future be disqualified to make choice of their own chiefs. Let those who are the greatest patriots, and the wisest men, be successively advanced to the office of kingly power, and entrusted with the preservation of human liberty. Let not birth, the idol of fools, any longer confer the honours of society on the worthless, but let the mind only constitute the title of elevation to the man.

'But though objections of this kind against an hereditary crown possess a plausibility and force which are instantly recognised by enlightened minds, the consequences drawn from them are by no means conclusive, nor will the experience of mankind render the adoption of another system worthy of an universal preference. It is indeed to the integrity and perpetuity of the royal power, that the security of our liberties is chiefly to be ascribed. An elective monarchy does not invariably secure a wise and pacific race of kings; but even the fortuitous productions of nature, through a long succession, may venture a comparison with the general proceedings of political ambition. But if the system of election secured to us more distinguished princes, it would probably involve us in consequences permanently hostile to our rights and liberties. If those, whom the people had entrusted with legislative power, retained among themselves the right of elevating our chief magistrate to the throne, the greatest bulwark that secures our freedom would be demolished, and the people would become defenceless in the midst of foes. Nobles of the highest rank expecting sometime to sway the sceptre of official power, or else allied to those who swayed it, would identify themselves with its high prerogatives, and connive at its encroachments on public liberty. Thus the power of the nation would be divided, and civil broils or aristocratic domination would ultimately be the fatal issue. Instead of those intrigues of court, or corrupt manœuvres of ministerial profligacy, which though highly criminal do not impede the public good, but arrest our attention only to be censured and forgotten; we should often hear, perhaps, that some wealthy commoner or potent peer had not only gained preponderance in the senate, but was exerting his utmost efforts to overturn the ruling power. Fleets seduced by his connexions, or troops enlisted under his banner, would instantly fill the empire with consternation, and terminate the peace of social life. And though the violence of actual warfare might not result from those commotions, confidence would cease, commerce would be interrupted, tranquillity would be lost in agitation, justice would be swayed by the violence of party-rage, and a dismal train of consequences would in quick succession follow.'

Having enumerated some prerogatives of the crown which seem to be almost incompatible with the liberties of the people, Mr. F. observes that

'The constitution, however, possesses in itself those counteractive principles by which even these mighty prerogatives themselves must be governed; and if its appointed guardians would be vigilant and faithful in the preservation of so invaluable a trust, the crown could never invade the privileges of the people, nor become in a serious manner injurious to the public good.'

After having inveighed strongly against our late protracted warfare, our excessive expenditure, the inroads that have been recently made on our constitutional liberties, and the corruption arising out of our borough-system, he thus proceeds:

'It is this radical corruption, indeed, whose operation though fatal can be ascertained only by the lapse of time, that aggravates public vicissitudes, and renders our prospects dismal and foreboding. If its secret devastations are suffered to continue without a speedy and effectual interruption, our liberties will soon degenerate into despotism or aristocracy on the one hand, and involve us in the horrors of vassalage or revolution on the other, Let the true friends of Britain, therefore, arm themselves with patriotic virtue, rally around the standard of public liberty, and resolve to rescue her noblest rights from the devouring jaws of these rapacious monsters. Let every one maintain his own integrity, oppose encroachments in every form, contend for an equality of elective rights, and restore the legislative system to its equitable independence and pristine purity. Thus the balance of the constitution will be restored; the inroads of time will be repaired; Britain will survive the ruin of despotic kingdoms; and the liberty of our descendants will remain immoveable as the flinty rock.'

If the author endeavours to work on our feelings while he pleads for reforms, he is at the same time anxious to satisfy our reason that they are become indispensible, and that it will be dangerous any longer to delay them; and hitherto he has not gone without the pale of the constitution. In stating the considerations which mitigate the lot of the poor under a free government, he makes this application to his own country:

'Such a degree of equal liberty is happily, with but few exceptions, enjoyed in Britain. Both the humble cottage and the splendid mansion securely defend the persons of their inhabitants. No one can innocently be dragged into the service of his wealthy neighbour, or with impunity be bought and sold. Every man is the proprietor of his own person, and if punctual in his observance of established laws, can neither be arrested in his pursuit of good, nor limited in the course of his own movements. — It is a lamentable fact, indeed, that some grievous encroachments on British liberty are still allowed to annoy our peace, and to impede the progress of national felicity.'

In the latter part of the paragraph, he alludes to the practice of balloting for the militia, and of impressing seamen; on which, in the sequel, he severely animadverts. To render his readers duly sensible of the abuses which have crept into our constitution, and aware of the dangers by which it is beset, he by no means deems it necessary to conceal from them the excellence that it still possesses: indeed, he seems fondly to set it forth, and to court rather than shun opportunities of doing it this justice.

Throughout this volume, Mr. F. not only asserts and maintains the principles with which he commenced, but inculcates on all occasions the great importance and dignity of our nature, and shews, in various ways, that the true happiness of man arises from the pursuits of virtue and knowlege. Our present life he considers as only a stage on which we are trained for a more elevated sphere of action: every system of government, therefore, and every institution that can militate against this object, he treats as being in contravention to the high destiny of man and to the will of the Supreme. Pursuing this cheering theory, he is the advocate of every establishment and of every art that can improve and advance the human mind, and the determined adversary of every regimen which tends to lower and degrade our species. Sound judgment, close reasoning, and fervid language, appear in the discussion of the various topics which are treated in this volume. Between some of them, it is true, we do not perceive any very intimate connection; nor could we assign a satisfactory reason for their being introduced into the places in which they stand: but still they are subjects of great interest and importance, are happily illustrated, and judiciously discussed. We cannot peruse the work without feeling our ardour quickened, and our attachment increased to all that is good and praiseworthy; the observations which are here made on the several subjects of man's duties in a state of nature, on the necessity of reforming our criminal code, on the equality of the human race, on the advantages of free inquiry, on the questions connected with religious liberty, on the means of improving the individual and society, have all eminently this tendency. These topics are closely connected with the welfare of man; and the views here given of them proceed from an enlightened mind, and are for the most part strictly appropriate: but the work will receive no praise from those who profit by corruption and abuse, or from those who prefer subversion to reform. The matter of this volume does not indeed possess a claim to originality, but it boasts of higher excellence; it is founded on a judicious selection; it is a well chosen assortment of reflections, maxims, and rules which have obtained the suffrages and sanction of wise men in all ages.

On one great constitutional point, however, Mr. Finch is heterodox: but, though he declaims eloquently, our own orthodoxy remains unshaken. He is hostile to our hereditary nobility; and, considering the order as injurious to society, he would abolish it. Our limits do not permit us to copy the whole passage from which the ensuing extract is taken:

> 'In our own nation, indeed, we are honoured with some hereditary peers whose transcendent excellence of mind and character dignifies their titles, renders them the glory of their species, and gives them an indisputable claim to be regarded as the pillars of our most invaluable rights. Yet alas! how many others are there, equally distinguished by hereditary honours, who, instead of attending to their country's welfare, delight in the most irrational frivolities, and are emulous only to excel grooms in their knowledge, or surpass coachmen in the dexterity of the whip. The senseless amusements of the turf, and the infamously disgraceful scenes of pugilism, are their element. You perceive them manifesting the utmost profuseness in the patronage of vulgarity, meanness, and folly; and being pre-eminent only in those things which even barbarians themselves would have wisdom sufficient to reprobate. Yes, to the sorrow and disgrace of Britain, many individuals of this description are allowed to rank themselves among the noble Lords of the empire, and to retain the honour of being still dignified with the titles and prerogatives of earls or of dukes! While the nation is involved in the most unexampled difficulties — while sorrow beyond calculation threatens to become the portion of every class, — these nobles, whose elevated rank should have been assiduously employed for the public welfare, are pursuing a course of the most thoughtless and criminal infatuation, — are corrupting the morals of society — and rapidly facilitating our national downfall! One consideration alone can alleviate the painful emotions which arise from the observance of their absurd and vitiated career; that, if long continued, it will tear away the veil from hereditary honours—convince mankind of their extreme absurdity — withdraw that homage which elevated rank has so long usurped — prepare hereditary distinctions for a noiseless grave — and accelerate the arrival of that day, when political influence and honour will be re-established only on the true basis of personal merit.'

It is not on account of any benefit which their privileges confer on the individuals who constitute this order, that we dispute the expediency of abolishing it: we contend for it as an essential branch of the constitution. If the nobles are removed, we must cease to have an hereditary monarch; without this intermediate body, the executive power cannot be constituted as it now is; and an hereditary chief magistrate could not well stand with an elective senate. If the nobles are removed, therefore, a republic must follow. — Whatever may be thought of the British constitution, it must be admitted that the materials of which it is composed are well assorted, and that it hangs well together.

On the several subjects of religious establishments, religious liberty, and the civil rights of men of different religious persuasions,

suasions, the views of this writer are enlarged and generous. Treating of these subjects, he says:

'It is evident that the public welfare could not be promoted by the abolition of ecclesiastical establishments under every form. A measure of this description would not only be repugnant to the principles as well as to the interests of a large and respectable portion of the community, but it would likewise in a serious manner injure a numerous body of enlightened men, without imparting to the public in general any conceivable, much less an equivalent advantage! and must therefore, even though effected by a majority in the legislature, produce a dangerous ferment in the public mind, and occasion animosities and strifes more violent than what are supposed to render the measure at all expedient. Whatever a future change in the public mind may render advisable with regard to the support of religion by the state, it would in existing circumstances be the height of political madness, to withdraw from the established ministers of religion the means of their support, and to leave the continuance of a religious system totally dependent on the public choice, and entirely unassisted by established laws. Though religion might have flourished in the absence of that protection which it has received from the state, if no institution had ever been adopted for its encouragement; the actual existence of such a patronage for a period so extended, having superseded other systems of support, and identified itself with the habits of society, renders its continuance under the sanction of established laws in many respects necessary, and obliges us to conclude that it can be safely withdrawn only in consequence of a change in the public sentiments, or by the gradual substitution of other measures.

'It may indeed be strenuously and with great plausibility maintained, that as true religion can result only from the exercise of private judgement, it is a subject in which the magistrate has no right to interfere, and that his patronage as well as his opposition ought to be decidedly deprecated. But though every friend to the liberty and happiness of mankind, and to the honour and interests of religion, should reprobate and oppose all attempts to make the church an engine or even an ally of the state; yet, it is surely allowable for the legislature to establish laws to protect and encourage the interests of religious truth, provided the laws which they institute for that purpose do not encroach on the rights of conscience, nor deprive any part of the community of their civil honours. If the legislature, virtually representing the majority of the nation, may lawfully establish general rules, and constrain the whole community to observe them, — provided no demands are imposed on the minority who may deem them inexpedient, but what the majority in like manner voluntarily impose on themselves; so this prerogative, under the same restrictions, may be equitably extended to every subject which can be deemed essential to the public welfare, whether in politics, philosophy, or religion.'

In sketching what a religious establishment ought to be in a country like our own, Mr. Finch's model certainly differs materially from that under which we live. The extract with which we shall close this article would alone enable our readers to form their own judgment of the spirit and tendency of the present volume:

'Let the guardians of the established church disclaim intolerance under every form, — remove those corruptions and mysterious creeds which have so long disgraced the Christian faith, — and reduce their multiplied observances to the model of apostolic times: let them exemplify towards dissenters those principles by which they sustain the name of Protestants, and which alone can justify their withdrawment from the church of Rome: let them renounce all attempts to curtail the liberty of nonconformists, or to prevent the promulgation of their respective tenets, and let the contumelious hauteur of clerical superiority yield to the respectful complacency of Christian love: let their pulpits be filled by ministers, whose discourses will enlighten and reform the people, and whose characters will comport with their profession: let no unrighteous test remain in force, but let all invidious differences in civil matters be abolished, and virtuous men of all persuasions be accounted equally eligible to serve the state: let Catholics be emancipated from all the disabilities and privations to which they have been so long exposed, and, so far as their demeanour is becoming, let them be treated as fellow members of the same community; that virtue and talent, instead of religious peculiarities and useless forms, may become the standard of social respectability and public faith. Such a reform will neither endanger the interests of true religion, nor enfeeble the basis of their establishment; but would remove the causes of fierce contention from amongst us, and justify our claim to the Christian name.'

ART. XVI. *Eloisa ad Abelardo*, &c.; *i. e.* A Translation of Alexander Pope's Eloisa to Abelard. By G. B. Boschini, of Rome. 8vo. pp. 38. Schulze and Dean. 1814.

THE history of this performance, unimportant as it may appear to most of our readers, strikes us as at least somewhat anomalous in the records of literature; since it presents us with a combination of confidence and humility which is seldom found to exist in the same individual. The confidence, to which we allude, is manifested in the design; and the humility, in the acknowledgement of the mode in which that design has been executed. We should imagine that no writer of sense and judgment, who did not entertain a very comfortable conviction of his own talents, would readily undertake a poetical version of one of the most tender and impassioned effusions of the British muse; and no poet, who is in the smallest degree ambitious of fame, will spontaneously give it under his hand and seal, that the lines which he submits to the public contain nothing of his own but the faults with which they may be chargeable. Yet, in a flattering dedication to Mr. Mathias, Signor Boschini expressly declares that his patron has so diligently revised, corrected, and polished the present translation, as to leave him nothing that he can call his own, except errors. If all dedications, therefore, speak the truth, and only the truth, this Roman's title to the copy-right of these nominal verses must have nearly vanished; for we scarcely perceive a single verse that misinterprets the meaning of the original, or that can be placed to the score of *error*. In a very few instances, however, the sense is imperfectly represented, and in a few more it is superfluously expanded. Thus, in the first line,

‘ *In queste oscure e solitarie celle,*’

we find no term corresponding to “ awful,” which has such a fine effect in the English.—‘ *Col lento sogguardo*’ is but a feeble adumbration of “ ever-musing;” while

‘ *col crine inculto,*
Spezzatrice de' fieggj e delle vesti,’

is pressed into the service to fit the measure.

(‘ *Mentre stilla l'umor che mai non cessa*’),

though in perfect accordance with the scenery, has no equivalent line in the original. The expression, “ These faded eyes,” is spun out into two feeble lines:

‘ *Questi occhi lassi, ond' è bandito il sonno,*
Son cavi, foschi, timidi, e languenti.’

Such freedoms, however, do not often occur; and some of the most striking passages in this celebrated epistle are rendered with accurate fidelity and ease of numbers. In the following, with the exception of the last line but one, which is only a partial paraphrase of “ the soft intercourse,” the version is both literal and elegant:

‘ *Le lettre al ciel la loro origin denno,*
Che a qualch' esule amante, od a cattiva
Sventurata donzella ne die' cenno.
Si stempra in esse il cuor, libera e viva
V' arde fiamma d' amor, daquelle solo
D' alme divise dolce union deriva.
Senza tema o rossor portano a volo
L' ascoso verginal desio nascente;
E aleggiano un sospir dall' Indo al polo.’

The picture of virgin innocence and piety is also copied with singular felicity:

‘ *O aurea*

'*O aurea sorte, avventurosa e vera*
Della claustrale vergine innocente,
Che sprezza il fasto e la mondana schiera;
O eterno sol d' immacolata mente!
Quantunque imprende, od opra, o pensa, o dice,
E' rassegnato, placido e decente.
Ubbidiente sonno almo e felice
All occhio cede a vigilare anelo,
O che il soave lagrimare elice.
Pensier modesti, avvolti in umil velo,
Desir soavi, temperati e onesti,
Dolce pianto e sospir' lanciati al cielo.
Grazia l'adorna di radianti vesti,
E gli angeletti, intorno al casto letto,
Susurrando le van sogni celesti.
Per lei fiorisce e olezza in vago aspetto
D' Eden la rosa, e dalle alate schiene
Piove de' serafin' profume eletto.
A lei col nuziale anel sen viene
Ratto lo sposo, e indolce canto alterna
Coro di verginelle "il sacro imene."
Scende su lei dalla magion superna
Suono d' arpe celesti, e s' addormenta ....
Stemprata in dolce visione eterna.'

We certainly entertain a favourable opinion of the joint efforts of Sig. Boschini and Mr. Mathias, on the present occasion; yet, detained, as we fear we are, within the magic circle of *tramontane* and early associations, we doubt whether we can, even in imagination, become sufficiently Roman to pronounce impartial judgment on a copy, when the charms of the original are ever present to our thoughts. Notwithstanding the softness and pliancy of the Italian language, it is, perhaps, incompetent to convey to English ears and English feelings the full force of those charms, which Pope has so richly scattered in this beautiful and deeply pathetic epistle.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1814.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *The General-Post Bag; or News! foreign and domestic.* To which is added La Bagatelle. By Humphrey Hedgehog, Esq., Author of "Rejected Odes," &c. Second Edition. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6s. Boards. Johnston. 1814.

Where these letters were found, whether at the end of a lane, after a mail-robbery, or at the end of Humphrey's pen, without a mail-robbery,

bbery, is no question; the point to be ascertained is, are they orth our picking up? For ourselves, we have no hesitation in sayg that we are very well pleased that the contents of this poetic postg have been thrown in our way, though they do not equal those of e *Twopenny-post bag*, its predecessor. As *hedgehog* poetry, it may presumed to be somewhat rough, and to partake of the qualities a curry-comb rather than of a razor: but, though it is meant to ratch, it is not designed to go so deep as to cause a wound that will ster. The ease and carelessness in these comically satirical epistles e intentionally manifested; since the author, in his *Bagatelle*, shews at he can write elegantly and harmoniously. We should like to al one letter out of Humphrey's General-Post Bag: but they are ostly too long for us. We will take the beginning and the ending 'Lord C——gh to the Earl of L——l.'

'My dear L——P——L,
I'm grown quite a fool,
Since my toil and my danger are over;
And, brimming my glass,
I jocundly pass
My toasts and *bon mots* in the Louvre.—

'Now, JENKY, my boy,
Give up to your joy,
Get drunk, quiz the Whigs, and laugh hearty;
Soon let it be known,
A BOURBON's on the throne,
And glum looks the beast BUONAPARTE.

'The great Russian bear
Has won, I declare,
The blessings of every Parisian:
I very much fear,
Bye and bye 'twill appear,
He'll eclipse you and me in ambition.

'He told me to-day,
His intention to pay
Very shortly a visit to London;
Pray keep him, mind that,
From private chit-chat
With the P——E, or we all shall be undone.

'Such lessons he'd read
From his own silly creed,
As might shake us in G——E's good graces;
For you and I know,
A very slight blow
Would tumble us both from our places.

'He's an old-fashion'd wight,
And seems to delight
In ministers not overweening,

And fancies withal,
The government stall
Is a stable that needs frequent cleaning.

'But now, my dear honey,
To go back to BONEY,
A subject replete with acumen;
My hopes and my pride,
Are ill satisfied,
That Paris is not now consuming.

'Our wishes thus balking,
What signifies talking
Miss PLATOFF will never be married;
Since the fiend has got free,
'Tis most clear to me
The design of the war has miscarried.

'Why, d—nme, what think ye?
This Elba, dear JENKY,
Is an island on Italy verging:
And here the arch-devil,
Still bent upon evil,
May strike out his schemes for emerging.

'Had CZAR ALEXANDER
Been less of a gander,
And FRANCIS thought less of his daughter;
I had felt no strange dread,
Lest the sparing his head
Had prepar'd but the way for new slaughter.

'Should those come to shame,
Who his life and his name
In a fit of benevolence spar'd him;
Let them suffer alone,
The fault is their own,
That they had not more fatally snar'd him.

''Pon my soul, my dear lad,
'Twould have made me most glad,
And set all my wits in wild racket,
To have seen the knave dance
From some platform in France,
Enwrapt in an iron-bound jacket.

'The carrion crows then,
Of this mightiest of men,
Might have frequently pilfer'd a dinner;
Shewing fortune her giving
Confines to the living,
And that e'en a dead Emperor can't win her.

'And now for the better
Concluding the letter,

Remember me over your claret;
Fill your glass to the brim,
And pledge it to him,
Who at fancy's feast gladly will share it.'

From the *Bagatelle* we copy the following, which is very pretty:

'TO A LADY,
Who desired the Author to write some Poetry on her.

'Oh! sweet is the music which beauty inspires,
And sweet is the song of the soul;
When the brain is illum'd by the heart's glowing fires,
And the Graces the subject controul!
You ask a poor bard all your charms to rehearse,
And the task would chill apathy warm;
But no pencil can picture, nor pen paint in verse,
What a God must have studied to form!
The poor silly insect that thoughtlessly plays
Round the flame which is pregnant with fate,
While, lur'd by its lustre, is scorch'd in the blaze,
And feels the fell danger too late,—
So the poet, presumptuous, who dares to pourtray
The likeness of charms such as thine,
Must inhale the strong poison that lurks in the lay,
And wound his own heart with the line!'

Art. 18. *Love of Fame*, a Satire. 8vo. 2s. Sherwood and Co. 1814.

Never was poet more incensed against Bonaparte than this satirist: but he cannot say with Juvenal, *Facit Indignatio versum*. He is feeble in his wrath, which boils over without appearing to be warm, and flows from page to page without energy and force. A tame and nerveless satirist pelts with feathers, and shews his teeth without being able to bite. Almost superior to our hatred of the monster is our pity for the poet, when for satire he gives us such lines as these:

'And if there live one honest man, who says,
The deeds of Bonaparte are worthy praise,
I like the good physician will reply,
When his own sick the General would destroy,
If to be great require a deed like this,
Do thou seek glory, I'm content with bliss.'

If the author pays his court in this manner, he may talk of his *Love of Fame*, but it will not be reciprocal.

Art. 19. *Poems, or Miscellaneous Metricals, amatory, moral, pathetic*, &c. By P. Taylor, Member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, &c., late Deputy Customer Inwards at the same Port. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

How often shall we be under the necessity of cautioning dabblers in rhyme against the flattering advice of friends, and of reminding them that the praise of a country-town is no sure passport to fame? Genuine poetry is a language which very few understand; it is also a species of literary manufacture in which skill and nicety of execution are required. The painter and the statuary never estimate their works by the praises of their ordinary acquaintance, but, by comparing them with the best models, judge of their own proficiency in their respective arts. The poet, also, if he would excel, must act on the same principle. Pope, indeed, talks of "snatching a grace:" but the cunning rogue knew full well that he never snatched a grace in his life, and that his poetic excellence was the result of study, and of much revision, arising from a difficulty in pleasing himself. Mr. Taylor appears to have never felt any difficulty of this kind, but to have pride in telling us with what facility he composed 'at a public desk, amidst the bustle and pressure of business.' Could he have heard the epithets of displeasure which we expressed while reading his sadly imperfect verses, he would have been extremely mortified. When no rules either of poetry or of grammar are observed, critics cannot help growling. We will not undertake to point out all the defects of this little volume, but, as specimens of Mr. T.'s poetic merit, copy two or three stanzas:

To a young lady, the bard observes;

> ' A good œconomist,
> Will ponder in his breast,
> From circumstances low,
> How comforts soon may flow.'

Mr. Taylor's *poetical circumstances* are *low* enough; what *comforts* may *flow* from them, we cannot conceive.

In some lines on an angler, we read thus:

> ' At length beguil'd a *growing* trout,
> Sprung on the fly's alluring wing —
> Alas! too late, he strives to root
> In giddy maze, its fatal sting! —
>
> ' So in life's course we often see,
> The unsuspecting young a prey
> To flattering duplicity,
> That strings before meridian day!'

Mr. T. seems to have quitted his post of 'Customer Inwards' at the port of Newcastle: but, if the bellman of the said town is in want of a verse-maker, the author may be a candidate for that office, with some prospect of success.

Art. 20. *Adbaston;* a Poem. By Charles Ash. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1814.

"George," (said a gentleman to his intimate friend, who had accompanied him on a visit to his native village,) "I view these scenes with an enthusiasm which I cannot communicate to you; for when a boy I trudged over this path to school; in that field I "urged the flying ball;" and in that hedge I had once the felicity of finding a blackbird's nest with four eggs." Similar recollections, under similar circumstances, very generally produce the same feelings; and hence verse-men and prose-men have spoken with rapture of the *natale solum*,

which

ch, though it could not renew their youth, revived its brightest ons. Mr. Ash remarks, from Ovid, that "there is a peculiar etness that attracts us all to the place which gave us birth, and her time, nor distance, can erase it from our recollection;" and poem is meant to be an illustration of the remark. *Adbaston*, tired spot on the western borders of Staffordshire, of no intrinsic brity, rises into consequence with Mr. Ash, and becomes the ject of his muse, because it happened to be his birth-place. Every umstance of the scenery and moral features of this village is disyed, and we should suppose that the picture is tolerably correct. poetic execution, however, is not in the first style. Though . Ash is captivated with his theme, his numbers want polish and e; he has spun it out to an unnecessary length; and we think the drunken bout at the farm-house, and the long detail of the tifarious occupations of the parish-clerk, are of a too low and gar character for insertion. The poem, indeed, is not an elegant iposition, but may be denominated an unpolished pastoral. The ter's apostrophe to his native village is a favourable specimen, and efore we shall take it:

'Dear — native Adbaston! — remote from care,
Thy tranquil fields would mitigate despair:
In thy sweet vales a balsam I could find,
When nought on earth could calm my troubled mind.
Each wild, each trifling object that surrounds,
Each lonely stile in thy sequester'd grounds; —
The ancient elm that shades the cottage door,
The distant grange — the dusky, rush-grown moor,
The echoing wood that joins the neighb'ring farm, —
Each hath, by turns, the magic pow'r to charm.
And yet, while thus the landscape I pursue,
What sad sensations pierce my heart, to view
Such change in ev'ry once-frequented scene,
That many a trace is fled of what has been.
Remember'd trees, on which I've carv'd my name,
Or hung the trophy of some boyhood fame,
Are seen no more; — the axe, with well-aim'd blow,
Long since has laid their leafy honours low;
While others rise upon the tufted lawn,
Which then were only in their sapling dawn:
Thus mighty empires that have long sustain'd
The shocks of time, and still, each day, have gain'd
Superior pow'r, for boundless ages past,
Must know a change — a dreadful fall at last.'

t. 21. *National Triumphs.* By Mrs. Cockle. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple. 1814.

ainters are not better acquainted with the effects of light and de than poets, who are very dextrous in contrasting our joys with sorrows, and in giving the boldest relief to splendid triumphs by ling the back-ground with the darkest tints. Mrs. Cockle, ig thoroughly initiated into this poetic secret, first harrows up our souls before she attunes them to strains of rejoicing; displaying the scenes of horror which were perpetrated, in the course of the war, in Russia, Germany, France, and Spain, as introductory to the grand burst of joy on account of success over the ferocious tyrant, and of the return of order and peace. We must not compare this lady's muse to the wild corn-flower whose name she bears, but to the elegant produce of the highly cultivated parterre, since her verse is nervous and flowing; as the reader will perceive from the following short extract appropriated to the praise of the illustrious Emperor of the North, and perhaps, in due time, Emperor of the East:

' Piercing the awful gloom in darkest night,
What sudden lustre pours its northern light?
And not alone its dazzling radiance glows
On the pale bosom of its native snows,
Rhine's rapid wave receives its welcome beam,
And Seine's gay bank reflects its stranger-gleam:
No faithless form, with wild delusive rays,
To guide the cheated step with meteor blaze,
But ah! like that, the sacred star of yore,
Leads murmuring man to wonder and adore;
Raise the sunk eye, and with a throne restor'd,
Accept heaven's better gift — the war-sheath'd sword.

' Ah! great in arms — in virtues more than great,
The glorious monarch of a glorious state!
Greater than him, the kindred name who bore,
Wept over conquer'd realms, and sigh'd for more;
Like *his*, we see *thy* victor flag unfurl'd,
Yet not like his, to awe a vanquish'd world.
In every clime its *guiding* banners wave,
Inscrib'd with heaven's own words, "We come to SAVE!
To guard, not conquer — succour and defend —
To tyrants hostile — to the oppress'd a friend:
To bid the groans of bleeding Europe cease,
And hush a nation's sorrows into peace."

The address to the restored Louis is equally commendable.

Art. 22. *Ode to Trinity College, Cambridge.* 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

By a man who has devoted his time at the University to the ardent pursuit of knowlege, his college will be contemplated as *the birthplace of thought*; and his veneration for it will not be less enthusiastic, than that which he feels for those rural scenes on which he first opened his eyes. In many respects, the recollections of college-life will be fraught with more sublime and improving sentiments; with sentiments which, while they expand the intellect, ennoble the heart. Clouds, however, will arise to darken these mental visions; and the very seats of the Muses may, under certain circumstances, becom irksome and disagreeable.

So common are these sensations with studious men, that surprised to hear the writer before us say that he 'was no that similar ideas have ever been associated with similar places or institutions.' We should rather remark that, to University-men or to persons habituated to college-life, his reflections are obvious, if not common-place. Why this is termed an *Ode to Trinity College*, in preference to St. John's, King's, on any other college, we cannot discover; since nothing occurs to confine the address, except perhaps a dark allusion (p. 15.) to the colonnade of Neville's Court. The ode, we must confess, has disappointed us. We soon stumbled on *sentiment* as a rhyme to *paint;* occasionally, we encountered defective grammar; and we generally experienced that want of vivid fire by which we hoped to find such a subject illuminated. If we copy the conclusion, we shall not take the worst part of the poem:

> 'Fair scenes, adieu! ye once had power
> To fascinate youth's ardent hour;
> Awhile ye soften'd later woes,
> And lull'd despair to short repose.
> The charm is gone: yet ne'er shall fade
> That strong attachment ye convey'd;
> And still, whene'er ye meet my eye,
> Shall fond remembrance prompt a sigh:
> Fair scenes, adieu! ere yet too late,
> Resolv'd to try a different fate,
> Her waken'd votary Wisdom calls,
> To quit in haste these fatal walls;
> In less recluse abodes to live;
> And seek content, ye cannot give.'

Art. 23. *Parnassian Wild Shrubs;* consisting of Odes, the Moralist, a Series of Poetical Essays; Sonnets, and Miscellaneous Pieces. By W. Taylor. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Wilson. 1814.

Why not *Parnassian Weeds?* This title would have had a more modest appearance, and in fact have been more appropriate. Carrying on the metaphor, we should call these pieces poetic creapers; the chickweed, not the rhododendrons, of Parnassus. Even in the first page of the first ode, addressed to *novelty*, before we have proceeded six lines, we stumble on the pronominal incongruity of *youing* and *thouing* the same person. E. G.

> 'Much I love to gaze on you!
> *Thou* who ever art the same.'

In the 2d ode, '*a Dial* is made to *arise*,' and *song* and *lawn*, and *lawn* and *mourn*, are given as rhimes; and in the 3rd, swallows *circumambulate* a stream.

It is confessed by the author that his present 'poetical attempts possess neither satire, humour, nor the enthusiasm of romance:' but he trusts that their moral tendency will obtain for him some indulgence. In a moral point of view, certainly, Mr. Taylor's verse is unexceptionable: but we think that his good meaning will not procure for him so much allowance as he probably expects. The morality of the following lines can never make them pass for even tolerable poetry:

‘ For Truth, in Reason’s page exclaims,
“ The difference wide, forsooth, is:
Virtue a steadfast kingdom gains,
And vice a kingdom loses !”

‘ On pleasure bent, deluded run
The sons of Folly, one by one,
Till all have had their turn ;
Till all are satisfied, and find
Pleasure as fleeting as the wind,
Leaving a deadly sting behind,
The cause of much concern.’

These are certainly *wild* products.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art 24. *Silva ;* or a Discourse of Forest-Trees, and the Propagation of Timber in His Majesty’s dominions ; as it was delivered in the Royal Society, 15th October 1662, on occasion of certain Queries propounded to that illustrious Assembly by the Commissioners of the Navy, &c. &c. By John Evelyn, Esq. F.R.S. With Notes, by A. Hunter, M.D. F.R.S. L. and E. To which is added, the *Terra,* a Philosophical Discourse of Earth. The 4th Edition, with the Editor’s last Corrections, and a short Memoir of him. 2 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The merit of this work in its original state, and of Dr. Hunter as an editor of it, is well known to men of science ; and we mention this impression of it chiefly for the purpose of apprizing our readers of the brief memoir of Dr. Hunter, which is prefixed. We learn from it that the doctor was born at Edinburgh in 1733, where he studied medicine. He then came to London ; whence he proceeded to Rouen in Normandy, to cultivate anatomy under the famous Le Cat, and to Paris for a similar purpose under Petit. He afterward settled as a physician at Gainsborough, at Beverly, and finally at York, in 1763 ; where ‘ he enjoyed a most extensive practice till his death, 17th May 1809,’ having survived all his children.

NOVEL.

Art. 25. *La Fontaine St. Cathérine,* &c. *i. e.* St. Catherine’s Fount. A Novel. By M. Ducray Duminil. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1813. London, De Boffe. Price 1l.

M. Ducray Duminil is a writer of some talents, who has now produced a wearisome book in consequence of “ using too many circumstances ’ere he comes to the matter.” The principal personage in this story is, like his “ Little Chimer,” involved in mystery ; and the author puts an end to the mazes which he cannot unravel, by explanations that are even less probable than the adventures which they are meant to elucidate. Thus the tale excites wonder without interest ; and the moral, though not dangerous, is inapplicable to any circumstances of real life.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *An Address to the Rev. Eustace Cary, January* 19, 1814, *on his Designation as a Christian Missionary to India*. By Robert Hall, M.A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Button and Son. 1814.

To enter into controversy with those persons, who deny that the attempt to propagate the Christian religion among the Hindoos is great and noble, would, according to Mr. Hall, be a degradation of reason. As a religious and as a political measure, he hesitates not to pronounce it 'magnanimous, wise, and unexceptionable;' and, viewing it in this light, he is sollicitous that our missionaries, who are proceeding to the East, should thoroughly understand the nature of the enterprize on which they are sent, and be duly prepared for their office. The address to Mr. Carey, which is a sort of charge delivered to him on his designation or ordination to this peculiar ministry, specifies the qualifications which a missionary ought to possess; viz. *self-devotement*, — the *spirit of faith*, or *strength of faith* respecting the enlargement of Christ's kingdom, — a conciliating temper, combined with prudence, and the diligent study of human nature.

The peculiar situation of a missionary is well described: and he is exhorted, in the cultivation of the extensive wilderness before him, to employ the most vigorous and robust industry. When, however, Mr. Hall comes to the immediate object in question, he appears to us to depart from the principles which he had previously inculcated.

'In recommending the principles of Christianity to a Pagan nation, I would by no means advise the adoption of a refined and circuitous course of instruction, commencing with an argumentative exposition of the principles of natural religion, and from thence advancing to the peculiar doctrines of revelation; nor would I advise you to devote much time to an elaborate confutation of the Hindoo or Mahometan systems. The former of these methods would be far too subtle and intricate for popular use; the latter calculated to irritate. Great practical effects on the populace are never produced by profound argumentation; and every thing which tends to irritation and disgust should be carefully avoided. Let your instruction be in the form of a *testimony*: let it, with respect to the mode of exhibiting it, though not to the spirit of the teacher, be *dogmatic*. *Testify* repentance towards God, and faith in our Lord Jesus Christ. It might become a Socrates, who was left to the light of nature, to express himself with diffidence, and to affirm that he had spared no pains in acting up to the character of a philosopher, in other words, a diligent enquirer after truth; but whether he had philosophised aright, or attained the object of his enquiries, he knew not, but left it to be ascertained in that world on which he was entering. In him, such indications of modest distrust were graceful and affecting, but would little become the disciple of revelation, or the Christian minister, who is entitled to say with St. John, "we *know* that the whole world lieth in wickedness, and that the Son of God is come, and hath given us an understanding to know him that is true, and we are in him that is true, even in his Son Jesus Christ."'

If

If we understand this advice, the sum and substance of it must be, "*testify*, declare your opinions, and do not attempt to ground them on any common basis admitted by both parties." St. Paul, in his missionary labours, appealed to the principles of natural religion; and why should Mr. Carey be precluded from this introductory process? The apostle reasoned with Felix, and why should not a missionary reason with a Gentoo? The faith proposed to acceptance must be discussed before it can be admitted; if, therefore, our apostles to the East are only to *testify*, or to make a declaration of their faith, entering into no argumentations on the peculiar doctrines of the Gospel, we do not augur any brilliant success. If we might presume to offer a hint to the missionary going to the East, we should in the first place advise him to argue with the Hindoos on natural principles; to shew them how highly improbable it is that a God of mercy should require infanticide and the immolation of human victims, and that a God of holiness should be pleased with impurity in his worship; and, having established these preliminary points, he may proceed to the question whether their religion must not have far less claims to divinity than our own, which reprobates all such enormities, and enjoins a purer morality?

EDUCATION.

Art. 27. *A Treatise on Politeness*, intended for the Use of the Youth of both Sexes. Translated from the French by a Lady. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

The fair writer has not named the original author of this treatise, but she informs us that her translation was begun by the advice of the late celebrated Mr. Kirwan, of Dublin. These maxims may teach her readers to "use all th' observance of civility," and the language in which they are delivered is easy and polished; although we must object to the following phrases: page 12. 'Familiarity is a polite *procedence* in conversation;' — page 17. 'Avoid *fiddling* with your hair;'—page 20. 'Refrain from all *fiddling* gestures with your hands,' &c.

Art. 28. *Natural History of Quadrupeds, for Children; combined* with an Attempt to engraft on the youthful Mind the Principles of Tenderness and Compassion for the animal Creation. By the Author of "the Decoy." 12mo. pp. 116. with Plates. Darton and Harvey. 1813.

Surely the editor of this little work is too fastidious in saying that 'scarcely one of the numerous books on Natural History is fit to be put into the hands of children.' We have seen several which we should have recommended without scruple: but we are happy in being able to add the present compilation to their number, since it may be offered to very young readers with perfect safety, and with great likelihood of attracting their attention by the agreeable anecdotes and well executed engravings which it contains.

Art. 29. *Rules for English Composition*, and particularly for Themes: designed for the Use of Schools, and in Aid of Self

Instruction. By John Rippingham. 2d Edition. 12mo. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

The first edition of these Rules was mentioned with approbation in the M. R. for May 1812; and the work is now enlarged by examples of comparison and contrast, and by short essays and narratives taken from esteemed English writers, which may be considered as an improvement on the original publication.

Art. 30. *Méthode Pratique*, &c.; *i.e.* A Practical Method of learning easily the English Language. By George Hodgkins. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Boosey. 1813.

This grammar is founded principally on that of Siret, which, being out of print, is now re-published with alterations and additions. The directions given for pronouncing the English alphabet, the diphthongs, &c. will be useful to a French Student, and the exercises explain many of the idioms.

In page 57. we have a table of 'the principal abbreviations in the English language:' but among these are several which no well educated person would employ: such as 'ben't for be not;' — 'd for had;' — 'D' for do;' — 'd'os for does;' — 'do't for do it;' — 'ha'n't for have not;' — 'Gi me for give me;' — 't' th' for to the,' &c.

Art. 31. *Bible Geography*; or a brief alphabetical Account of all the principal Places mentioned in the Old and New Testament. Adapted for young People and religious Schools. By a Lady. 12mo. pp. 91. Williams and Son.

With the best disposition to applaud this lady's diligence in the compilation of this useful epitome, we must not forget our duty, which obliges us to intimate to her (however ungallant it may seem) that she is not quite so faultless as we hoped to find her. While her Pocket-dictionary of Bible-Geography manifests her reading, it betrays also symptoms of haste, and perhaps of her not being quite so much of a *blue-stocking* as at first sight she would seem. Under the article *Alexandria*, she misleads her young people by telling them that the celebrated library, collected in that city, was consumed in the wars between Cæsar and Pompey, when it is well known that this irreparable loss to the world of literature and science was occasioned by the order of the Caliph Omar, in the 7th century. In page 4. we have Nicanor, for *Nicator;* and in p. 5. Appii-Forum is directed to be pronounced *ap'pi-fo'rum*, which the school-boy who is learning his Latin Grammar will tell her is wrong. — The article *Ecbatana* contains this passage: 'In the Vulgate Bible, (Ezra iv. 2.) we read that at Ecbatana in Media was found a copy of Cyrus's Edicts,' &c. By the mention of the Vulgate, we might suppose that this notice was peculiar to that version: but the fact is that the word *Ecbatana* does not occur in the Bible; and that the information respecting the discovery of Cyrus's Edict is mentioned in the Apocryphal book of Esdras, vi. 23. We point out these errors to shew that the work requires revision. The principal places which occur in Scripture are well described: but the lady is too brief in her notice

tice of Rome; and, in a book for the use of schools, we object to a reference to larger works as an apology for disappointing omissions.

CATHOLIC-QUESTION.

Art. 32. *An Address to the Protestants of Great Britain and Ireland, on the Subject of Catholic-Emancipation*, presenting Facts and Documents illustrative of the real Object of the Irish Roman Catholic Leaders. By the Rev. William Thorpe, A.B. one of the Chaplains of Bethesda, and of the Lock Penitentiary, Dublin. 8vo. pp. 70. Seeley. 1814.

Alarmed for the safety of the Established Church, and even for our Protestant Government, in consequence of the intemperance with which the Catholics urge their claims, Mr. Thorpe feels himself required to raise his warning voice; especially as, from his peculiar situation, he has had opportunities of ascertaining the views and designs of persons in Ireland, with respect to Emancipation, which few possess. His object is to throw light on the subject, by a direct reference to the language and proceedings of Roman Catholics themselves; and he professes merely to furnish facts and documents, 'leaving others to form a judgment, *without expressing any of his own*:' but he is so very warm in the cause which he espouses, that he soon forgets the resolution to conceal his own sentiments; and he boldly declares 'that, though it was formerly his opinion that, with certain limitations and suitable securities, the Emancipation of the Roman Catholics would be a salutary measure, events have so far changed his mind that he should consider any concession to that body, at present, as a serious misfortune to the empire.'

It is our duty, however, to remind Mr. T. that he has not made proper allowance for the wounded feelings of the Roman Catholics, irritated by repeated disappointments; and that it is not altogether fair to subject to criticism the first draft of their Petition to Parliament, before it had undergone a proper revision. Even in its corrected form, it wears too much the aspect of menace; yet it must be granted that, if their language be too bold for petitioners, the conduct which they have experienced has been sufficient to rouse the resentment even of meekness itself. It may be very right to notice the most intemperate publications, speeches, and resolutions of Catholics; yet these will not, in fair discussion, be allowed to bear hard on the real merits of the question. Much inflammatory matter may doubtless be detected in the addresses of some individuals of this body to their brethren: but it surely is going too far to say that the object was to excite insurrection and rebellion.

It is contended by Mr. Thorpe that Emancipation is not the ultimate object of the Catholic leaders, because they are forming a large supply of money; and he calculates that, by the plan for a parochial subscription, 156,250l. will be raised, and may be raised annually. We have our doubts of the accuracy of Mr. T.'s calculation: but, even admitting that this subscription would yield the sum which he specifies, it is inadequate for the purpose of rebellious war. If, out of the five millions of which the population of Ireland is stated to consist, 4,200,000 are Catholics, they may fairly be allowed to call themselves *emphatically the People of Ireland*, and no doubt have a right to a full share in the government of that country. Even supposing that they amount only to 3,000,000, according to Mr. T.'s statement, the conclusion is the same. We cannot think that this subscription is to be considered in the light of a tax, and that the plan of it is 'a daring assumption of the prerogative of Parliament:' but it shews, with other things, how much the hearts of the Catholics of Ireland are set on Emancipation; so that, if we are not prepared to accede to their petition, we must *look to ourselves*. Whether the object of the Catholics be or be not '*something* beyond Emancipation,' their irritated temper and feelings are fully exposed in this address; and the facts and documents which it contains are intitled to the consideration of the intelligent statesman, who will draw from them the suitable inferences.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Reflections on Materialism, Immaterialism, the Sleep of the Soul, an intermediate State, and the Resurrection of the Body:* being an Attempt to prove that the Resurrection commences at Death. By John Platts. 8vo. pp. 40. Sherwood and Co.

Ingenious, though far from satisfactory: for who can proceed beyond the region of curious hyposhesis in such metaphysical wanderings? We shall content ourselves with the short abstract which Mr. Platts himself gives of his opinions, without attempting either to uphold or to confute them.

'The sum of what I have said may be reduced to the following propositions. That death is neither the destruction, nor the interruption of human consciousness. That there is neither an intermediate state of happiness, nor of insensibility between death and the resurrection. That there will be no resurrection of the body. That the resurrection means, either a *future state*, or, *the transition* to that state, and that it commences immediately at death; when we shall appear before the Judgment-seat of Christ, and receive, according to the things done in the body, whether they are good, or whether they are evil; and that this is the coming of Christ, the end of the world, and the Judgment-day, to every individual.'

'The scriptural account of a resurrection and a future life should not be understood in too literal a sense: it is evidently adapted to the ordinary conceptions of mankind; the doctrine of future punishment is always considered in this light, for who is there now believes that the wicked will be literally punished with fire and brimstone? So the notion of a simultaneous resurrection, or of all mankind being raiſed at one time and together, does not appear to me to be so easily proved from scripture as most people imagine.'

When he proceeds to notice 1 Cor. xv. 52., Mr. P. is not merely satisfied with denying that this passage is at variance with his views, but he asserts that 'there is not a single word in all the chapter concerning the resurrection of mankind from the grave or of the resurrection of the body.' If this be the case, how little is Scripture understood! We recollect that Mr. Fellowes has thrown out hints much in unison with Mr. Platts's theory: but, if we do not mistake, he proposed them with more diffidence.

Art. 34. *An Account of the different Charities belonging to the Poor of the County of Norfolk*, abridged from the Returns under Gilbert's Act to the House of Commons in 1786; and from the Terriers in the Office of the Lord Bishop of Norwich. By Zachary Clark. 8vo. pp. 296. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Though this work has been long overlooked, or rather concealed in our heap, it must not pass wholly unnoticed; because the statement, as far as it goes, is of importance, and because it moreover presents an example which ought to be followed in every county in the kingdom. Mr. Clark, one of the respectable society of Friends, commonly called Quakers, having heard (as his editor the amiable Mr. Clarkson informs us in the preface,) 'that the Charities left by benevolent individuals for the use of the poor were often mismanaged and misapplied, felt a growing disposition to be more than a mere hearer of such reports;' and being informed by a friend that, as far as his own county of Norfolk was concerned, he would find in the Bishop's office the ancient Terriers, in which were all the registers of land or money ever bequeathed to the poor, he made application to this office, and procured copies of two or three Terriers for places in which abuses of the Poor's money were said to have taken place; by which means he effectually detected some of those abuses. The editor thus proceeds:

'Having found, in one or two instances, that the application of the Poor's money was different from that which the Terriers pointed out to be the true one, he was encouraged to seek for information in other cases. This, however, he did gradually. Thus, in one year, he added the copies of two or three Terriers to those which composed his stock. In another, he added others. In another, he was obliged to have recourse to the Petty Bag Office in London, for copies of decrees relating to cases in question. In another, he obtained copies of ancient Wills for the same purpose. Thus he went on, though but slowly, increasing his knowledge in this department.

'In process of time, having obtained a number of copies of Wills, Decrees, and Terriers, he began to feel his ground on this subject, or, in other words, he began to feel the strength of the foundation on which he stood; and finding from the knowledge he had acquired, that some town lands belonging to the Poor were, in two several parishes, improperly disposed of, he interfered publicly, and succeeded. The result of his interference was, that the Poor in each parish received a considerable augmentation to their income from the lands in question.

'Cheered by this success, he was still more inclined to persevere; but, in doing this, he was persuaded that it became him for the future to adopt some regular and fixed plan. Living, as I observed before, in Norfolk, he thought no better plan could be devised than that of

vouring, expensive and laborious as the task would be, to procure
s of all the Terriers which might be in existence for that county.
elieved that, if such copies were procured and printed, many ad-
ges would result.—First, every person living in the county would
an opportunity of seeing whether any, and what Charities, had
left to the Poor of his own particular parish, and what were the
ded uses of these. Secondly, by comparing their intended with
existing uses, he would see how far they were abused. And,
ly, in the event of such abuse, he would be enabled, by producing
Terriers before his fellow-parishioners, to restore them to the end
hich they had been originally designed. He had a hope, in fact,
individuals, seeing these Terriers in print for their respective pa-
, would actually step forward in behalf of the Poor, and secure to
their just rights wherever they appeared to have been invaded.
ad also another hope, viz. that as he himself had endeavoured to
t in one book the Charities belonging to his own county, others
t be induced to make similar collections for those to which they
ctively belonged; so that, one following the example of another,
ights of the Poor might, in time, be ascertained, and put upon
d through the whole kingdom.

But while he was contemplating this plan, and the means of exe-
g it, he received information from a friend of a rich mine of ma-
s, of which he had been wholly ignorant, and which on that ac-
he had wholly overlooked. His friend informed him, that Mr.
rt, a worthy Member of Parliament, had brought in a bill, only a
ears before, which had been carried through both Houses of
ament, the object of which was to bring to light every species of
ion belonging to the Poor, throughout the realm.'

the voluminous returns made to Parliament under the Gilbert
Mr. Clark also obtained copies; hoping to find 'a well founded
mportant history of all the charities in the kingdom:' but in
e was mistaken.

e perceived, says his editor, 'on comparing some of these with
opies of some of the Terriers which he had before obtained for the
places, that there were Charities in Gilbert's Returns not noticed
Terriers, and, *vicê versâ,* Charities in the Terriers not noticed in
rt's Returns, for the same parish. He found also that both the
rns and the Terriers frequently threw light, where there was some
rity, upon the contents of each other. This being the case, he
dered that the returns for places under the Act of Gilbert would
ten imperfect without accompanying Terriers for the same, and
fore he resolved, whatever expence he might incur, to realize his first
tion, that is, to collect also the Terriers for the whole county.'

favour of Dr. Bathurst, Bishop of the diocese, Mr. Clark was
ed to execute this laborious part of his undertaking; and he
that 'there are no less than between five and six hundred, out
tween seven and eight hundred parishes in this county, which have
charity or charities belonging to them, and of which accounts
been collected from either the one or the other of these sources.'

ith all the care which Mr. Clark has bestowed on this compila-
it is probably, in some instances, imperfect: but it is a valuable
record.

record. Every county ought to have a similar printed account; and, to forward this object, we have extracted the history of the present undertaking.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 35. *The Duty of Britons to promote by safe, gradual, and efficacious Means the Progress of Christianity and Civilization in India.* Preached at the Meeting House, Carter-Lane, April 4. 1813. By Joseph Barrett. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

For benevolent and animated declamation, no subject opens a wider field than the conversion of the Hindoos to faith in Christ: but neither do we recollect any one subject which more imperiously demands the tempering of zeal with prudence. In practical application, Mr. Barrett's epithets would probably be found incongruous. *Safe means* may imply mildness: but *efficacious means* indicate a degree of *energy* which will secure the effect; and Europeans in the situation of Mr. B. have no opportunity for judging of the fitness of measures to be adopted in the delicate situation of our Eastern empire. We perceive, in the instance of Spain, that our exertions in her behalf have not induced her to abandon the Inquisition; and the bigotry of the Hindoos to their superstitions is even more inveterate than that of the Spaniards. We most ardently wish that they could be brought to adopt the principles of the Gospel: but we do not hesitate to repeat that we tremble at the consequences of intemperate and miscalculating zeal. We say *miscalculating*, because in India the proportion of Europeans (including all departments civil and military) to the native population is about *thirty thousand* to *seventy millions!* Mr. B.'s doctrine is that, instead of holding in subjection a mass of *unconnected* and *unwilling* tributaries, we should make a way into their hearts: but unwilling tributaries should be cautiously treated, lest, by employing *efficacious* measures to accomplish an object beyond our present reach, we lose for ever the opportunity of an intercourse with the Hindoos. The India Company are the judges of the state of affairs in the Indian Peninsula: yet Mr. B. complains of it as an evil that the Company should have the power of *tolerating*, or prohibiting, missionaries or other advocates for Christianity who may proceed to India: but is he not aware that, if they had not this power, our Eastern possessions would be in the most imminent danger? Persons of suspicious character might land in India, and, under the pretext of making converts, spread disaffection and endanger rebellion. Let zealots at home express an amiable wish for the conversion of the East: but let enlightened persons on the spot judge of its practicability, and take care that a great empire be not lost by an experiment. Whether the subject comes before us in the shape of a dissertation, a speech, or a sermon, we shall not hesitate to reiterate the same advice. Most heartily do we agree with this preacher that 'the *attempt* at the projected amelioration would be highly beneficial;' with this proviso, that it be confined to exertions made among ourselves; for whatever tends to unite discordant sects, in plans of general benevolence, will infallibly promote the true spirit of the Gospel. We cannot, however, allow Mr. B. to be competent to give an opinion on the actual result of *efficacious means* employed for christianizing India. His replies to objections are ingenious, but not satisfactory. Our advice would be, in the language of the old proverb, "Make no more haste than good speed." The extraordinary seclusion of the Japanese from the rest of the world, arising from an attempt made to subvert their religion, should be a warning on this subject.

Art. 36. *Memoirs of the Life and Ministry of the Rev. Hugh Worthington.* Being a tribute of Respect to his Memory. By the Rev. B. Carpenter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

The substance of this pamphlet having originally been delivered in the form of a sermon, it is allotted to this class. Indiscretion is a prevailing feature in tributes of respect to deceased friends; and survivors fancy that they discharge a duty by holding up the departed as paragons of excellence, and by telling the world that

> "They ne'er will look upon their like again."

Could such indiscreet admirers, however, hear the remarks which are made on their panegyrics, they would soon be convinced that they render their friends no service by over-praising them. Mr. Carpenter has this lesson to learn. He has covered the canvas with high colouring, but has not sketched an accurate outline. Mr. Worthington is in the first place ranked with *Luther*, *Calvin*, and *Melancthon;* in the second he is compared with *Demosthenes;* and in the last place he is represented as a man 'whose worth it is as difficult to appreciate, as it will be to supply his loss.' This high-flown eulogy is not supported by evidence. Mr. Worthington was a preacher of much renown in the dissenting chapel at Salter's Hall, and, in point of eloquence and devotional animation, he was allowed to excel many of his brethren: but he had nothing of the reformer about him; nor was he a Demosthenes in the pulpit. We cannot be supposed to know any thing of his private life: but Mr. Carpenter's own statements shew that, with all the good and amiable qualities which his friend possessed, his worth was not so very pre-eminent as to make it difficult to appreciate. Mr. Worthington is here said to have been led away by a *flow of spirits*, and to have been a procrastinator: but a man who is indiscreet and procrastinating must not be placed among "burning and shining lights." — Mr. W. was born at Liecester, July 2d, 1752, and died at Worthing, July 26th, 1813. This pamphlet is intitled Memoirs, but we have no memorials, or anecdotes, by which the subject of it is made to live before us.

Art. 37. Preached at the Meeting-house, Salter's Hall, Cannon-Street, August 8, 1813, on the Death of the Rev. Hugh Worthington, in the fortieth Year of his Ministry in that place. With Explanatory Notes. By James Lindsay, D.D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

Some of the hearers of this discourse having accused the preacher of "damning with faint praise," instead of pouring forth, in honour of the deceased, that warm tide of studied eulogy which is usual on these affecting occasions, Dr. L. urges self-defence to be his sole motive in sending this sermon to the press: but will it serve his purpose? Though creditable to him as a composition, as a funeral sermon it is not adapted to harmonize with the feelings of an audience assembled to pay their public respect to the memory of a deceased pastor. We acquit Dr. L. of being in the smallest degree actuated by an envious spirit,—a crime falsely laid to his charge: but, granting his strictures on the late Mr. Worthington's style of preaching and mode of conducting public devotion to be just, they are rather out of place in an address to the mourning society at Salter's-Hall. He doubtless meant to compliment Mr. W. when he remarked that the aim of his preaching was 'to teach *moderate* sentiments:' but this, at best, is very vague and indeterminate praise; if it be *any* praise. Nearly in the same indefinite way, Dr. L. describes Mr. W.'s eloquence; observing that, 'in his style and manner, there was a striking peculiarity, a *nameless something*:' while the value of this nameless something is deteriorated by this remark, that 'other preachers we may have known endowed with minds of a higher order, exhibiting in their public exercises a wider range of thought, and with more varied and brilliant powers of fancy and illustration.' In short, the popularity of the late Mr. Worthington is left to rest almost entirely on a *nameless something*; and, after the comment on the familiarity and deficient solemnity of his devotional exercises, the general praise which is subsequently bestowed will not be called in question:

'To affirm that he possessed great general worth as an individual, great excellencies as a public teacher of religion, great zeal in promoting the best interests of this Society, and that his labours among you give his memory the highest claim to your gratitude and respect, is doing to *him* no more than justice requires, and asking from *you* no other tribute than of your own accord you are forward to pay.'

We are informed by Dr. L. that the religious sentiments of the deceased 'were very nearly, if not altogether the same with the preacher's own:' but what his own sentiments are we are not told, so that here again we are left in the dark, being only furnished with the epithet *moderate* as "the lanthorn to our steps." A tirade against systems is furnished in the notes; though we cannot perceive in what repect systems, *as* systems, are objectionable. Erroneous systems, or systems tyrannically imposed, are to be reprobated: but the clear exhibition and arrangement of true principles or doctrines must always be desirable.

Art. 38. *Usefulness the great Object of the Christian Ministry:*—preached at Worship-street, Finsbury-Square, August 15th, 1813, on the Decease of the Rev. Hugh Worthington. With a complete List of the Subjects discussed at the Wednesday Evening Lecture, held at Salter's Hall, for *Fifteen* succeeding Winters. By John Evans, A.M. 8vo. 2s. Sherwood and Co.

This sermon, which is certainly written in a different style from the preceding on the same occasion, has the singular feature of relating the death and funeral of Mr. Worthington, before it gives any trait of his life and labours; and so minute is Mr. E. in his account of he funeral, that he tells the audience ' that *eighteen* mourning oaches and *nine* gentlemen's carriages attended :' — even the names f the pall-bearers are not forgotten. More facts relative to Ir. Worthington, both as a man and as a minister, are also ollected in this sermon than are to be found in Mr. Carpenter's nemoir. Mr. Evans thus delineates his deceased friend : —

' As a *man* he was intelligent, social, and friendly : — he possessed rom nature a quick intelligent mind, enriched and expanded by a judiious education ; — his *pulpit-labours* had a peculiarity attached to them ot easily to be characterized ; — his *prayers* were original ; — his style ras the crystal stream, where we saw to the bottom ; — his subjects vere practical ; — his delivery was singularly striking ; — and in the est sense of the word he was *a popular preacher*.'

That he was not an *idle* preacher is evident, since he left ehind him *fifteen hundred* sermons. Mr. Worthington's religious entiments are clearly stated by Mr. Evans, and not vaguely haracterized as *moderate* ; and it appears that, like the late Dr. Richard Price, he was an Arian, believing in the pre-existent lignity of Christ, but not in his absolute divinity. By the extracts ere given from the discourses of the deceased, it is manifest that Mr. W. was a very animated, impressive, and useful preacher. Mr. Evans also mentions his sensibility of heart, and specifies two miable traits in his character ; viz. his attention to the rising eneration, and the encouragement which he gave to young men ducating for the ministry. In short, the preacher has manifested his riendship by placing the character of Mr. W. in the most adantageous point of view, and his sermon must have given general atisfaction.

Art. 39. For the 13th January, 1814, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By the Rev. L. Blakeney, A. M., Curate of Lechlade. 4to. 2s. Wilson.

The preacher here enumerates, as incentives to gratitude, the eculiar advantages and blessings which Great Britain enjoys ; and e then exhorts us, as the only means of securing the enjoyment of he inestimable privileges which distinguish our land, to *have the Lord for our God*.

Art. 40. Preached at the Church of Kibworth, Leicestershire, on the 13th of January 1814, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By the Rev. James Beresford, M.A., Rector of Kibworth, &c. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

Mr. Beresford first considers the fallen enemy as an instrument of God's judgments, and next as a chosen vessel of his wrath ; and, if the legraded French Emperor resembled the portrait as delineated by Mr. B., he might have been the latter, though we should not have execed him to be selected by Omnipotence for the former. What a tring of vices uniting in one man has Mr. B. here formed ! — ' Cruelty — pride — insolence — injustice — oppression — meanness — malice — reachery — cowardice — ingratitude — hypocrisy — falsehood — caumny — theft — murder — perjury — blasphemy — and selfishness, are he hideous features of his character.' — Then who will not say, " It s well that he has fallen" ?

Art. 41. Preached in the Parish Church of Mortlake, Surrey, on the 13th of January, 1814, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By Edward Owen, B. A. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

This animated preacher takes a review of the war from the period of the French Revolution, recounts the aggressions of the French and their strides to universal empire under their late Ruler, and congratulates our country on being a rallying point to the oppressed, and on the happy changes which, through our most energetic exertions, have taken place. He observes that, 'although war, with its attendant woes, has for years been raging around us in every direction, we have been preserved from that most dreadful of all its evils, that of having the field of battle in our own country;' and respecting the nations of the continent he says, 'we have only to compare the present state of Europe with its abject, degraded, and suffering state not two years back, to perceive cause indeed to excite our gratitude.'— Suitable exhortations follow; among which, *the Naval and Military Bible Society* is recommended to the liberal protection of the public: applications from fifteen thousand of our defenders, for Bibles and Testaments, not having been granted, on account of the reduced state of the Society's Funds.

Art. 42. *Divine Providence evidenced in the Causes, Consequences and Termination of the late War.* Preached at St. James's Church, Bath, July 7, 1814, the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By the Rev. Richard Warner. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

After having maintained the doctrine of a Divine Providence superintending the affairs of men, Mr. Warner reviews, in connection with this principle, the long war which is now so happily terminated; and he offers reasons to induce us to consider that contest which, in fast-sermons, we have deplored as an evil, to be in its consequences productive of extensive good. The horrors and calamities of Europe have been great, but its sufferings have not been fruitless. Mr. Warner tells us that this infliction led to a revival of the religious spirit throughout Europe; (we wish that he could have said, to the extension of Protestantism, to the suppression of the Inquisition, and to the annihilation of the Papal power;)—to the amelioration of the civil condition of millions;—and to a conviction of the horrors of anarchy and the evils of tumultuous revolutions.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter from St. Andrew's is received, but, from an incidental circumstance, we can make no reply to it in this Number.

We shall look farther into the matter stated in the letter which is desired to be considered as private, when we have an opportunity, which at present we have not.

Other letters remain for future attention.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published on the first of October, with the Number for September.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SEVENTY-FOURTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mélanges de Critique,* &c.; *i.e.* Critical and Philological Miscellanies, by S. Chardon de la Rochette. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 16s.

The classical scholar is here presented with a very learned and amusing collection of essays: but, as the veteran author candidly (if not judiciously) intimates in one portion of his work, it is not a collection adapted for indiscriminate perusal. Many of the subjects are of too confined a nature for the entertainment of the general reader, and sundry passages in every volume are calculated only for the inspection of initiated eyes. To speak plainly, it is our opinion that, on some occasions, a little less learning and a little more reserve would have improved these miscellanies. It shall, however, be our business to render justice to their several attractions; to give a sufficient though succinct account of their stores of information; and to dwell particularly on those divisions of the book which seem most curious, and most worthy of general attention.

In a concise preface, we are informed that a part of these essays has appeared in the periodical publications of France, but especially in that literary journal which bears the title of "*Le Magasin Encyclopédique;*" and which in its merit, and popularity on the continent, is stated to be the genuine successor of "*Le Journal des Savans:*" — nay, in the opinion of those among whom it circulates out of France, to be superior to its precursor. On these matters we shall be better able to form a judgment in England some time hence; when opportunity shall have been given us to profit by the present happy change in the state of the world; and we shall have renewed our old freedom of literary intercourse, as well as free communication of every kind, with the continent.—The portions of these miscellanies which had been already published are here corrected, and cast into a new form. They were well received at first, and the author hopes that they will deserve a continuation of public favour. The three leading articles, which introduce each volume, are now first printed: they are also the most interesting in the work, according to our judgment, and we shall therefore devote the best portion of our attention to them: but we shall previously state the contents of the whole collection to our readers, and notice some detached passages of curiosity or interest in the other essays.

An air of good humoured criticism pervades this publication, which, we confess, coincides with our ideas of what is correct and proper on such occasions. The authors, indeed, who are selected for criticism, are in general those whose reputation is established; and who, in the opinion of all readers, deserve a much ampler portion of praise than of censure. Still, when faults are necessarily to be found, there is room for a prodigious difference of manner in alleging those faults; and, however earnest or vehement the critic may be in defending his own favourite ideas against any who impugn them, it can only be the wilfully indiscriminating, or the impenetrably dull, who mistake this earnestness or vehemence for self-conceit, for ill-temper, or for malignity. The marks of deliberate bitterness of spirit are, we think, so easily distinguishable from those which belong to an occasional burst of honest affection, or even of pardonable indignation,—such a coldness appears about the one, and such a warmth about the other,—that they can run no danger of being confounded, except by those who *will* mistake, or who *cannot* discern. M. CHARDON DE LA ROCHETTE is still less exposed to the chance of misrepresentation. He has the utmost tenderness for the reputation of others; and in truth, on most occasions, he offers a model of that well-bred style of criticism which, we grieve to say it, seems to be so little known, or at all events so little practised, in that family of scholars who by eminence, or by courtesy, (if their rivals please,) are intitled *classical*. We were induced to refer with approbation to an extract on this subject from a preface of Markland, inserted by Dr. Butler in the notice prefixed to his

Æschylus *; and we are so much pleased with any exemplification of the gentlemanly principles there inculcated, that we cannot omit to mention the liberal feeling of the present author towards all his literary rivals.

M. Chardon de la Rochette apologizes for the insertion of a republished letter from the learned *Coray*, but with that confidence which any composition of that excellent scholar must inspire in the publisher. We shall notice it in its place.

In his fourth volume, which he tells us will be almost entirely devoted to *Greek Philology*, he promises with much solemnity the Greek text, the French translation, and two Latin verse translations, (with we know not how many commentaries,) of what composition, will our readers suppose, after all this pomp of promise? — of a poem of Paul the Silentiary! — Now, really, let the said Paul be as elegant an epigrammatist as the warmest admirers of the Anthology can describe him to be, yet this grave declaration of an intended publication of one of his poems cannot but make the common reader smile; and we have several other opportunities of observing, in these volumes, that unconscious importance which classical critics are apt to betray, and which is so ludicrous to the unlearned observer. — The fourth volume is also to contain a general and analytical table of contents of the first four volumes. — Vol. V. (which, if its predecessors succeed, will make its appearance in due season, and which, itself, will not be the last!) will give an unedited romance of Nicetas Eugenianus; the Greek text, a French version, and notes. This, we have no doubt, will be an addition to our stock of Greek literature: — but we shall return presently to the subject of the Greek romances. The author concludes his preface by requesting his reader's indulgence for the misprints in the work; which we have not observed to be unusually numerous; and most of which are of so palpable a nature as to occasion the reader not a moment's doubt as to their origin.

In our specification of the criticisms collected in these volumes, we shall omit the three leading articles before mentioned, and review them in succession after we have dismissed the essays of minor importance. — Volume I. supplies some remarks on certain passages in Suidas; an explanation of a Greek inscription, preserved at Aix in the cabinet of M. *Fauris St. Vincens*; an account of an edition of Anacreon, by the

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* We hope ere long to give an account of the remaining volumes of this most useful and laborious variorum edition of Æschylus. (See Review, Vol. lxiii. N.S. p.162.) We have to make our peace with our classical readers for so long delaying the continuation of this critique.

Abbé *de Rancé*, in 1639; a dissertation on two Greek epigrams of Philodemus: a letter to the Abbé *de St. Leger* on some editions of the Greek Anthology; on the facetious work called "*Le Chef-d'œuvre d'inconnu;*" on Panætius on the Greek anthology of *De Bosch*, with the Latin version of Grotius; and on the poem of Petronius intitled "The Civil War." Of these subjects, that which has most occupied the attention and called forth the learning of the present author seems to be the Greek Anthology; and indeed this was naturally to be expected from M. C. DE LA ROCHETTE, at whose hands every classical scholar is so anxiously waiting for the complete edition of all the extant remains of these Grecian flowers. From the specimens here given of the editor's intimate acquaintance with his subject, in many of its branches, we cannot but anticipate the highest gratification to all the lovers of antient literature, when the promised work appears.

M. *de Bosch* seems to have conceived a most erroneous idea of the respect entertained by the present author for the labours of Grotius on the Anthology. M. C. DE LA R. clears himself from the mistaken charges of the German editor; and, on this as on all similar subjects, he shews the greatest urbanity and good humour in his literary arguments. Among many curious pieces of bibliographical information which this volume contains, we have observed the following notice of the *Anthologia Inedita*, (as it is commonly called,) which may be acceptable to some of our readers:

> 'It is ascertained that there does not exist in Europe [*] (at least if it be not in some library at Constantinople) any other manuscript of the collection of Cephalas than that which was transferred from the Palatine library to the Vatican, and which forms a part of those *with which we have been furnished by the Pope*. All the others which are scattered over Europe, and pass under the name of the "*Anthologia Inedita*," are derived from it. I know only two entire copies of this unique manuscript; that which the Duke of Saxe Gotha purchased from the heirs of *Spalletti*, and that which I have in my possession. All the other MSS. are only extracts, of greater or less extent, from the Palatine MS.'

In the note on this passage,—and all the articles there enumerated are enriched with curious annotations,—we have a singular specimen of the rapaciousness which seems to have pervaded every department of the late French government; a rapaciousness, we cannot help remarking, which the legitimate rulers of the country will do well to disavow, by restoring the plundered treasures, (trying to their virtue as this restoration in some instances will be,) *without exception*, to their respective countries *. We need not say that our remark is applicable to the case before us; although we should wish M. CHARDON DE LA ROCHETTE to have every temporary use that he can wish of the Vatican MS. 'The Pope was so sollicitous for the preservation of this MS., that he caused it to be conveyed to Terracina with his most valuable jewels. *But our Commissaries directed it to be brought back; and, perceiving that it had been newly fastened together, and that the Anacreon had been detached from it, they ordered that to be brought back also*, and these two parts were reckoned as only one manuscript.' Here ends this precious story; which we cannot peruse without considerable indignation. We are not much better pleased with the eulogies too plentifully sprinkled through a scholar's pages on that *immortal Emperor*, whose glory has set in darkness and degradation. The author may have been an object of his favour: but, in the character of an admirer and supporter of antient literature, surely he cannot consistently panegyrize that person as the patron of the learned languages, who gave nothing like a general encouragement to classical instruction, but, on the contrary, (during one period of his reign at least,) only wished to promote the study of Greek and Latin inasmuch as they were necessary to the explanation of the technical terms of art, and favourable to the improvement of military science.

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[*] This round assertion, that the author *has proved a negative*, may startle some of our more cautious logicians.

M. C. DE LA R. proceeds to detail the earlier adventures of the Palatine MS. † He gives us an Italian letter of Leo Allatius on the subject, the original of which exists in the rich library of Carpentras, among the voluminous correspondence of *Peiresc*; and he states his belief that it was never before published. It contains an account of the mission of Leo Allatius to Heidelberg to collect and arrange, previously to its transportation to Rome, the celebrated Palatine library, which Maximilian of Bavaria had presented to the Pope. It is assuredly a curious document, and will be a rich treat to a certain class of literary epicures.

The second article of Volume II. furnishes a sketch of a history of medicine by the celebrated *Coray*, and the third gives some account of the edition of Theophrastus published by the

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* We are greatly pleased with the manly boldness of a member of the Spanish Cortes, in a late meeting, for proposing this demand on the part of Spain.

† May we not ask, *en passant*, why, in this age of bibliography, we are not occasionally favoured with the "Adventures of an Unique MS." or "The Literary Life of an *Editio Princeps*?"

same

same learned editor. In this work, we see the extraordinary qualifications for the office of a critic combined in the person of a scholar who is equally versed in the antient and the modern languages of such a country as Greece; and, in the notes, the present author states some striking instances of the mistakes which are liable to be made from a want of these advantages.

The fourth article relates to another edition of the Characters of Theophrastus. This is followed by a letter to M. *Millin*, (the institutor of "*Le Magasin Encyclopédique*,") inclosing an Italian epistle printed from the MS. of Rubens in the Imperial Library. We cannot think that the memory of Rubens has been much honoured by this epistle; which did not, either in matter or in manner, deserve publication. The author, however, who is not cautious as to the subjects which he discusses or the style in which he treats dangerous topics, could not be expected to have more apprehension for the reputation of another than for his own. We shall say no more on the occasion, and shall observe silence on any similar case which may occur in the remaining essays.

We are now presented with an account of Antonio Di Lebrisa, classically called Ælius Antonius Nebrissensis, who flourished in the fifteenth century, and did great honour to Spain as an active co-operator in the revival of literature. This paper is succeeded by some remarks on Fragments of Dion Cassius; by a sketch of the Life and Writings of the Abbé *de St. Leger*; by a review of the *Exercitationes Criticæ* (Tom. 2.) of M. *Jacobs*; and by a literary notice of Leonard Philaras, (called by the French *Villars* and *Villeret*,) a learned Athenian, who held a political situation at Paris in the 17th century, and to whom Milton addressed two Latin letters; a reprint of which is given in the author's notes to this article. They are extracted, he tells us, from *rather a rare collection* of Milton's Latin Letters, intitled *Joannis Miltonis, Angli, Epistolarum familiarium liber unus. Londini*, 1674.—Whether this *single* volume be rare or not, the letters are to be found in all complete collections of Milton's prose works; and, like the other Latin compositions of this great man, they serve to prove that the elegance of his classical knowlege was exceeded only by the liberality of his opinions and feelings.

Next occurs an extract from a letter of *Villoison*, concerning an emendation of Horace by the Abbé *Galiani*; which, without being quoted, had been extravagantly praised in the *Magasin Encyclopédique*. M. C. DE LA ROCHETTE replies to M. *Villoison* by a citation from the Literary Gazette of *Suard* and *Arnaud*, in which the emendation of the Abbé *Galiani* originally appeared. It is an attempt to give a new reading to the much disputed line in Horace,

"*Difficile est propriè communia dicere,*"

which the Abbé *Galiani* would metamorphose into

Difficile est proprium communi addicere,

and would interpret thus, *that it is difficult to unite the productions of our imagination with known and received facts,* — namely, the mythology of the antients, and that therefore it would be better to take a subject *entirely* from the Iliad, (that is, to borrow the *Dramatis Personæ,* as well as the fable,) than to hazard a play on a more original plan. This would make good sense, indeed, of the passage: but, to say nothing of the Abbé's arguments as to the *ductus literarum,* &c. we require examples of the phrase *proprium communi addicere,* and of its signifying that which he would have it to signify, before we assent to the justice of his correction. At present, we agree with the author, and with M. *Villoison,* that it is more ingenious than natural.

Another extract from a letter of the last-mentioned critic follows, and presents a very adroit emendation of a corrupt Greek passage from St. Chrysostom by the insertion of a single letter in a word. We have then some remarks on the Posthumous Works (the *Reliquiæ Medico-Criticæ*) of D. *J. S. Bernard;* a letter to *A. M. Schneider* concerning a manuscript which contains the Latin Treatise of the Emperor Frederic II. *De Arte Venandi cum Avibus;* Observations on *Ruhnken*'s Collection of the Scholia on Plato; and the promised letter from *Coray* to M. C. DE LA ROCHETTE, addressed to him in the year 1796, and now reprinted from the *Magasin Encyclopédique.*— Some of our readers will be aware that, in this letter, *Coray* discussed the curious question concerning the *Secret Testament* (ἀποῤῥήτοι Διαθήκαι) of the Athenians, to which Dinarchus alluded in *Advers. Demosth.* Vol. iv. p. 8. Edit. Reiske, and advanced a very ingenious conjecture, which attempted to identify with this *Secret Testament* the dying injunctions of Œdipus to Theseus as given by Sophocles in the *Œdipus Coloneus.* Those scholars who may not have perused this discussion will have high gratification in so doing; since it reflects the greatest honour on the learning, ingenuity, and candour of the writer. We have only room to refer to a comparatively unimportant, but we think very happy, emendation of the text of Sophocles in the Speech of Œdipus above-mentioned; where, instead of

Φθίνει μὲν ἰσχυς γῆς, φθίνει δὲ σώματος—

Coray proposes

Φθίνει μὲν ἴς ψυχῆς, φθίνει δε σώματος· —

and he supports this reading by several parallel passages, in which he shews that this mode of expression was a common philosophical contrast, as well as poetical antithesis. — As we are speaking on the subject of various readings, we will just advert to the well-known passage (quoted in one of the subsequent essays) in the beginning of that beautiful little chorus on Love in the Antigone, in which the Deity is addressed in most editions under the truly elegant denomination of "a *murrain among Cattle*,"—at least if κτημασι, according to Brunck's opinion, may be used in a chorus synonymously with κτηνεσι. If the former be the word that most frequently occurs in the MSS., we should prefer the alteration which we have somewhere seen, ἐιν ὄμμασι for ἐν κτημασι; or, if κτηνεσι be the prevailing phrase, ἐν γληνεσι· Thus we shall have "Love in thine eyes for ever plays," in the Greek as well as the English. Again, if πιπ̀τεις be objectionable, let us substitute ἴσιν or ἵζεις, adding the ν to the dative.

The second essay of the third volume contains a letter from the Abbé *St. Leger* on some articles in the sixth volume of the *Soirées Littéraires*; and the Reply of the present author. They both principally turn on a Latin poem, seemingly little worthy of annotation, concerning the "*Chaste Susanna.*" Some observations on M. *Larcher*'s Herodotus follow; and ample justice is done to this meritorious translator and commentator.— We are next favoured with a Dissertation of the Abbé *Morelli*, which gives a curious account of some Venetian travellers, whose voyages and adventures have not been so generally known as those of others who did not deserve more notice.— The next subject is the Life of Lorenzo, by our accomplished and highly respectable countryman Wm. Roscoe; of which M. *Thurot* has published a French translation of much repute. He had indeed before distinguished himself as the translator of Harris's Hermes.—This is succeeded by a letter on the Tides, by Signor *D'Ancora*; by the preface of the Père *Lobineau* to Aristophanes; and by some translations from the Lysistrata, a tolerably free play for the good father to select for his annotations or versions! Aristophanes, however, has been singularly favoured by the perusal of the gravest divines. — We have then another letter to M. *Millin*, relating to the MSS. of J. F. *Seguier*, containing his valuable researches on Antient Inscriptions; and remarks on *Barbier*'s Dictionary of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Authors *. We also find some account of G. N. *Her-*

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* We gave a report of this work in the 63d Vol. N.S. of M.R. p.462.

kens, the author of many esteemed works, and would-be-editor, or inventor, or whatever he is to be called, of the supposititious tragedy of Tereus.

Successive essays on *De Pauw;* on the 3d volume of the *Bibliotheca Critica* of *Wyttenbach;* on the Kisses of Secundus, as translated by P. F. *Tissot*, and accompanied by some *Unpublished Kisses*, which certainly *ought* to be the most valuable part of the collection; on the History of the Early Ages of Greece by M. *Clavier* *; on *Leonard Racle*, the architect of Ferney, so celebrated by *Voltaire;* on the influence exerted by Medicine over the Revival of Letters (a very curious and interesting essay); and on an Imitation of the Cantatas of Metastasio by M. *Auguste de Labouisse;* conclude the third volume of these ingenious and learned Miscellanies.

We have now to return, according to our intention, to the three principal essays which severally stand at the head of each volume: — but we have been led into so much ampler a detail of the contents of the other articles than we had proposed, that we must be proportionably shorter in our remaining examination. We shall first attend to the account of *Villoison*, which commences the third volume.

For twenty years of uninterrupted literary intercourse, M. Chardon de la Rochette enjoyed and preserved the friendship of *Villoison;* and, with all the accuracy of extensive knowlege, and all the ardour of fellow-feeling on classical subjects, he details the successive honours of his illustrious friend. Some of our readers, perhaps, may find the attraction of novelty in an account of this celebrated scholar; and those who are best acquainted with his fame will be least likely to be averse from hearing a friendly history of it.

Jean-Baptiste-Gaspard d'Ansse de Villoison was born at Corbeil on the 5th of March 1750, of a noble family, originally Spanish. From his early youth, he discovered a marked predilection for Greek Literature; and, having commenced his studies at the college of Lisieux, and prosecuted them at that of Plessis, he repaired with eagerness to the *Collège des Grassins* to hear the Greek Lectures of *Le Beau*, and those of *Capperonier* at the *Collège de France*.—At the age of fifteen, he carried off all the Greek prizes from his cotemporaries. Once only he was unsuccessful; and then it appeared, to his extraordinary honour, that the judges had decided from a Latin translation of the Greek trial, and that *Villoison* had corrected the text of the original, where it was faulty, before he translated it.

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* For a Review of this work, see M. R. Vol. lxvi. N.S. p. 449.

Literary testimonies to the merit of the young scholar were now multiplying in every quarter; and the author extracts a passage from a letter of the learned Swede *Biörnstähl*, in which we find a most striking record of the industry and ability of *Villoison*; viz. that, in the course of a few months, he had acquired the Arabic, Syriac, and Hebrew languages. M. *Biörnstähl*, in another letter, dated the 24th of June 1770, informs us that by his encouragement *Villoison* was excited to publish the Homeric Lexicon of Apollonius, which laid the foundation of his high credit as a classical editor. — The Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres now became desirous of admitting him into their society: but a regulation as to age prevented the election. They therefore applied to Louis the Fifteenth to grant a licence for violating this regulation on the present occasion, and *Villoison* in consequence was elected a member in the year 1772, three years previous to his attaining the *regulation age*. This deserved favour opened his way into all the learned associations in Europe: so true is it, that the first honourable advance is more than half the journey. We next see *D'Alembert* coming forwards to recommend the young scholar to the great Frederick; and, in a word, both his countrymen and foreigners conspiring to add the stimulus of public praise to his innate love of learning. His edition of Longus appeared in 1778; but we hasten to take notice of that æra in his literary life which commenced in the year 1781, when he repaired to Venice, in order to examine the numerous treasures of the library of St. Mark. Here he passed his mornings, during four years, in the happy acquisition of new stores of knowlege, and at the same time enjoyed the most delightful of all evening recreations in the society of men of letters. He now published his *Anecdota Græca*, and his letter to *Lorry*: but the discovery which he made of the inestimable manuscript of the Iliad, enriched with scholia from the most learned critics of antiquity, occupied all his thoughts, and engrossed his whole literary ambition. As he proceeded in transcribing it, he conceived the idea of the possibility of discovering a similar copy of the Odyssey in some Greek library. He therefore returned to Paris to prepare for this expedition: but, previously to setting out for Greece, he paid a second visit to the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, who, as well as the illustrious mother of the Duke, had received him in Germany with the utmost kindness. On his departure, he wished to leave with his distinguished hosts the antient *Tessera Hospitalitatis*; and this was the cause of the publication of his *Epistolæ Vinarienses*.—By the interest of M. *De Vergennes*, he obtained a sum of money from the French King to defray the expences of his literary journey; and, as the companion of the French ambassador to the Porte, he had every facility afforded him for the furtherance of his projects: but, finding nothing in the libraries of Greece which repaid his trouble of research, he visited the monasteries of Mount Athos, and was there also equally unsuccessful in his inquiries. He, however, proved from the ignorance of the Monks, that it was not from any arts of concealment, or desire to enhance the price of their literary possessions, that they withheld those possessions from general communication. It seems, in short, to be ascertained that nothing of importance is to be expected from this quarter.

On his arrival at Paris in 1786, *Villoison* applied himself vigorously to his edition of the Iliad: but, with all his diligence and activity, his plan was so comprehensive, that it was not till the year 1788 that this most learned and useful work made its appearance. His next employment was to reduce into form the immense materials of every description which he had collected, that were illustrative of the state of antient and modern Greece. The result of his labours, in fifteen large quarto volumes, is deposited in the (*ci-devant*) Imperial Library at Paris; and we trust that the restoration of a rightful government in France will be more auspicious to the cause of literature, in this and many other instances, than the rule of an usurper whom M. De la Rochette compares to Charlemagne; and whom at every turn he loads with the most fulsome panegyric as the patron of the arts,—that is, the spoiler of the classical remains and consecrated monuments of every country which unfortunately yielded to his force or his friendship.

Some time before his journey to Venice, M. *De Villoison* had married a young lady named *Caroline Neukart*, who was as interesting in her person as she was cultivated in mind. To the greatest modesty, and all the other virtues peculiar to her sex, she added a rare degree of information, which she took the utmost pains to conceal. Little known in the world, loving solitude and study, she found means very considerably to increase the revenues of her husband, during his absence from her on his literary expeditions:—but alas! soon after his return, he had the misfortune to lose this inestimable treasure. He never recovered from his affliction at this event; and at last the Revolution broke out, and overwhelmed all fortunes, pursuits, and minds! *Villoison* was frequently in the habit of repeating to all those who were desirous of extending the range of this explosion,

> Οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη. Εἷς κοίρανος ἔστω,
> Εἷς βασιλευς·—

The remainder of his life may be depicted in a few words. He chose Orleans for his retreat during the troubles of his country, and in the library of that city continued to prosecute his favourite studies. He was especially occupied with his *Palæographia Græca*: but the manuscript folio on this subject, which the present author tells us stood at the side of *Montfaucon's* Paleography in *Villoison's* library, was not found at his death; although the *Montfaucon*, filled with MS. notes, was purchased at his sale for 361 francs, a price which some of our English collectors would deem insignificant indeed for such a treasure. If the folio in question be in existence, we trust that it will yet see the light.

On *Villoison's* return to Paris, he found himself obliged to open a course of lectures on Greek Literature: but these were not favourable times for the dissemination of classical knowlege. When, however, the Institute was *organized* on its new plan, *Villoison* (we record this to the real credit of the French Ruler) was recalled to his former rank in the class which replaced the former Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres; and, soon afterward, a Professorship of antient and modern Greek in the *Collège de France* was expressly created for this most distinguished of French scholars. The good old days of the Academy were now expected to return, and learned men in every part of Europe were anticipating the fruits of this judicious and honourable appointment: but *Villoison* was snatched from all his projects and all his honours, by an untimely death, on the 26th of April 1805.

To this memoir of his life, which we have very considerably abridged from the original, the author adds a few affectionate praises of the liberal and kind disposition of his friend; subjoining a sort of *Catalogue Raisonnée* of his works, of which we have not room to give even an abstract. We have noticed the principal publications of *Villoison* in the course of his biography.

We now come to the two essays on the Greek Romances, which we have mentioned as the most interesting portion of the work. The reader is indeed presented with a very ample fund of entertaining information on this comparatively unexplored subject: but we regret our total inability, within our remaining limits, to offer more than a brief and meagre abridgment of these ingenious treatises. The first contains a translation of an extract from the *Bibliotheca* of Photius, in which he gives an account of the Romance of Antonius Diogenes, intitled "Marvellous Things seen beyond Thule." Of this Diogenes, little is known: but it may be discovered by the fragments that remain of his writings, in which he makes mention of Aristoxenes, of Heraclides, of Timæus, of Neanthes, of Moderatus, and of Nicomachus, that he lived much later than the æra which has been supposed, and that the probable date of his celebrity (such as it was—for he is only cited by Porphyry, who borrows from him much incredible nonsense about Pythagoras, and records it with all the ardour of a sceptic, who "*believes in all unbelief*,") was the first half of the third century. Jamblichus also takes many stories from this veritable source, and gravely relates them of his philosophical hero: but without quoting his authority. Photius was certainly mistaken as to the age in which he flourished. He places Antonius Diogenes shortly after the time of Alexander; but the only proof which he offers for this early date is a fancied imitation of the Romance in question, discoverable (according to that fancy) in Lucian, in Achilles Tatius, in Heliodorus, and in other inventors of fables. If Diogenes had lived at so distant a period, and had been imitated by so many writers as Photius supposes, he must have been more frequently quoted by subsequent authors. The *plan* of this Romance may be detailed in a few words: the *contents* of it are much too various and comprehensive to be even sketched in the present article. He imagines a certain traveller, named Dinias, who has wandered over the most unfrequented regions of Greece, and met with the strangest possible or rather *im*possible adventures. These he relates to various hearers, and Thule is the principal scene of his narration. They are extravagant and marvellous enough *in their events*, we agree with M. DE LA ROCHETTE, for any modern writer of romance: but we crave his excuse for totally differing from him as to the interest which they would be likely to excite if offered to the perusal of our cotemporaries, in a fashionable dress; unless that dress completely altered their present appearance. They are too *hyperbolical in style and manner* to suit the taste of our days: for, with reverence be it spoken, we should much doubt the success of Cervantes himself in the present æra. *Irony, hyperbole, and strong painting of all kinds*, seem to be under a sort of interdict; and if the extraordinary power of wit could not recommend these unfashionable qualities to general notice and applause, it is clear that any common invention must fail of success. "The Babylonics, or the Loves of Rhodanes and Sinonis," by Jamblichus, have greater variety and equal marvellousness to recommend them to the admirers of romance. Jamblichus (who must not be confounded with the biographer of Pythagoras mentioned above, nor with his cotemporary philosopher of the same name,) flourished in all probability between the reigns of Trajan and Marcus Aurelius. His "Babylonics" abound with ghosts, caverns, tombs, and the most astonishing catastrophes; and here we agree with the present author that something *popular and profitable* might be struck out by a modern imitator. The notes to the account of both these romances contain much valuable matter; and the classical scholar, especially, will be pleased with the remarks on a passage in Herodotus, in which we have a curious notice of Zamolxis: as also with the strictures on Strabo's biographical sketch of the same philosopher. We are obliged to leave numerous passages of equal interest wholly unnoticed; and to proceed to the fuller enumeration of the Greek romances, with the criticisms on them, in the second volume.

The author begins with a well-merited eulogium on the dissertation of *Huet*, the learned Bishop of Avranches, concerning the origin of romances. That prelate had given a most complete and satisfactory account of the Greek romances published in his time: but those of Xenophon of Ephesus and of Chariton had not then been edited. The work of *Huet* ought to be made popular in our own language by a good translation; since, with the exception of some detached treatises in periodical works, and one or two insufficient prefaces on the subject, we have nothing in English on this curious topic; — nothing, we mean, that can be called a critical and scholar-like account of the remains of antiquity in this department of literature. Photius seems to have foreseen that the romances of Antonius Diogenes and Jamblichus would not reach our times, by the long extracts which he has given from them; while he is contented with the most brief notice of Heliodorus and Achilles Tatius. We shall reverse the order of M. DE LA ROCHETTE's treatise, and begin with Achilles Tatius. Heliodorus, indeed, is so pre-eminently our favourite, that we must reserve his "Æthiopics" for the *bonne bouche* of our critique.

Achilles Tatius, who, in the judgment of *Huet*, is an imitator of the writer whom we have just been praising, as well as of Lucian and Philostratus, has left a romance on "The Loves of Clitophon and Leucippe," which abounds in entertaining incident and well-drawn character, and is written in an elegant and highly ornamented style. Too rhetorical, however, in his language, and far too unguarded or rather licentious in his sentiments, Achilles Tatius affords neither a model for indiscriminate imitation, nor a subject for general perusal. He may be called the most erotic of the erotic writers: but, at the same time, if he be judged by the standard of his own age (the fourth century), while we do not allow that consideration to blind us to his unpardonable indecency, we must feel it greatly heighten the merit of his literary attainments, and almost entirely excuse the defects of his taste in composition. M. CHARDON DE LA ROCHETTE gives us, as usual, a very exact bibliographical notice of the editions of this author; four only of which (including that of Salmasius) have hitherto appeared. In the notes, we have also a learned extract concerning this romance, from the *Bibliotheca Critica* of *Wyttenbach*, and some corrections of the Greek text.

The pastoral romance of Longus is one of the most agreeable productions of the conclusion of the fourth or the beginning of the fifth century. We have no precise information concerning the author: but we have twelve editions of his romance, and among them one by *Villoison* and another by *Schafer*. It is a curious fact, however, that till the year 1810 no edition of Longus contained his whole text; and that the *lacuna* should be filled up by a French artillery-officer, M. *Courier*, who discovered a perfect MS. of Longus in the possession of the monks of mount Cassin in the Abbey at Florence, and published it at Rome in the year above-mentioned. In the same MS., — stranger still to relate, — besides a copy of Achilles Tatius, were found the romance of Xenophon of Ephesus and of Chariton. How *Salvini* who translated the former, and *D'Orville* who published the latter from the same MS., should have missed such a discovery, seems unaccountable. Xenophon of Ephesus, according to the opinion of *D'Orville*, was posterior in date to the writers above-mentioned; although one of his editors carries him as far back as the age of the Antonines. His work, which contains the loves of "Abrocomus and Anthia," is elegantly written; and, although full of improbable adventures, by the lovers of romance it will be read with satisfaction. It has appeared in five editions. The fifth, with Longus, forms the third volume of the *Scriptores Erotici*, published by M. *Mitscherlich* at the Bipont press.

The loves of "Chæreas and Callirhoe," by Chariton Aphrodisiensis, have been fortunate indeed in finding such an editor in the first instance as *D'Orville*, and in the second such a translator as *Larcher*. The romance of Theodorus Prodromus, who flourished at the beginning of the 11th century, and that of Eustathius or Eumathius, (if the former be his name, he must not be confounded with the learned commentator on Homer, although he is supposed to have lived about the middle of the 12th century,) seem to have been equally unworthy of preservation; and we shall therefore record nothing farther concerning them than their titles; the former of which is "Rhodanthe and Dosicles," and the latter "Hysminias and Ismene." The critic before us reserves all that he has to say of the inedited romance in verse by Nicetas Eugenianus, intitled "The Loves of Drosillus and Chariclea," for the edition of the Greek text, with a French version and notes, which he promises to give in the fourth volume of these Miscellanies. — Heliodorus's "Æthiopics," or the "Loves of Theagenes and Chariclea,"

Chariclea," constitute the most regular and the most chaste romance of all that remain to our times. Its style, as Photius justly observes, is adapted to the occasion, and remarkable for its simplicity and sweetness; while the story is varied by the unexpected misfortunes of the characters, and by their wonderful escapes from those misfortunes. The denouement, as the Bishop of Avranches remarks, is admirable; it is perfectly natural, grows out of the subject, and produces a very touching and pathetic effect. Several editions and reprints of this interesting work have been published; among the former, is an excellent one by D. *Coray;* and it has been translated into every modern language.

Heliodorus was born at Emessa in Phœnicia, in the reign of Theodosius the Great. The Byzantine historian Socrates informs us that he composed his romance in his youth; and that, being made Bishop of Tricca in Thessaly, he introduced the custom of ejecting every minister of the church from his office who continued any nuptial intercourse with the wife whom he had married before his ordination. If this be true, we confess that our interest in the Thessalian Bishop and his romance is much diminished: but we had rather, for a moment at least, listen to a very different story of Heliodorus, as it is related by Nicephorus Callistes. The Provincial Synod enjoined the Bishop of Tricca to burn his Romance, which in their *wisdom* and *delicacy*, (for prudery is of all ages, sexes, and professions,) they had pronounced to be improper for the perusal of young persons: but, with the true spirit of an author, Heliodorus resigned his mitre, and preserved his romance.

We shall conclude this long article with a French epigram on the above story by M. *La Monnoye:* but we must first offer our readers some very pretty Latin lines, and a translation of them, descriptive of the hero and heroine of the "Æthiopics."

"*Per terras comitem dat se Chariclea, per undas,*
Theagenemque suum, sed patienter amat.
Fidus amans sociam, sed castè, asservat amantem;
Oscula eunt teneræ plena pudicitiæ:
Et quum legitimis venerunt tempora tædis,
Senserunt Veneris gaudia prima suæ.
Vos, oh vos omnes huc appellamus amantes,
Ut tam castus agat, non furiatus, amor."

These verses were prefixed to the Lyons edition of Heliodorus in 1611.

O'er land, o'er sea, where'er her lover bends,
Fair Chariclea faithfully attends.

The true Theagenes protects his love,
And guiltless kisses their reliance prove.
But when the blest, the sanction'd season came,
They felt the first enjoyment of their flame.
Oh ye, who love, forbearance here acquire,
And glow as fondly with as pure a fire.

The epigram is as follows:

" *Mitre, fardeau lassant, disoit Héliodore,*
J'aurois grand besoin d'ellébore,
Si, pour te conserver, je brûlois mon romant;
Ma tête, à l'avenir, sera plus honorée,
Pour avoir su produire un livre si charmant,
Que pour avoir été mitrée."

" Mitre, burthen of my head,"
The Thessalian bishop said,
" Quite a madman should I be,
Burning my romance for thee.
Much more fame that head will crown,
Much more durable renown,
As the head of such a writer,
Than of one who wore a mitre."

ART. II. *Mémoires de Goldoni,* &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of GOLDONI, and of his theatrical Productions. By himself. 2 Vols. Octavo. Paris. 1814. London, Colburn.

BIOGRAPHY is a term which has a different import on the opposite sides of the British channel. From Marseilles to Calais, it implies the full and explicit delineation of character and conduct, even to the smallest incidents and most fleeting thoughts that present any peculiar distinction between the individual and the collective species; and, in embracing the better side, it turns not away from the more dishonourable traits that may mark the man. This system of self-*espionage* was first instituted by *La Montaigne;* it was carried to an extravagant length by *Rousseau;* it returned to its primitive temper under the happy pen of *Marmontel;* and it lends occasional amusement to the pages of their imitator GOLDONI. In this country, literary biography, with few exceptions, contents itself with the birth, parentage, and education, the early symptoms of excellence, quick perception, instances of retentive memory, praises of schoolmasters, prizes at college, arrival at a garret in London, struggles and quarrels with over-reaching booksellers, poverty, solitude and sentiment, bad dinners, and an early and miserable end. Such we apprehend to be a fair analysis of Johnson's lives, if we except the admirable criticism to which they give occasion. A biographer on *this* side of the channel is contented with relating what *may* be related; while on the other side that which was never intended to be recorded forms an equal, and unhappily the more entertaining, part of the story. Not to mention the real frankness of *La Montaigne*, the affected frankness of *Rousseau*, the natural and ungarnished history of *Marmontel*, the avowed and unblushing infamy of *Richelieu*, and the *naïveté* of a *Stahl*, who were both the subjects and the authors of their histories, we may trace the same desire to reveal the man, and the whole man, in the Memoirs of *Grammont*, written by an English apostle of the French school; and yet more prominently displayed in the gallery of portraits bequeathed to us by *St. Simon*. Of all biographers, this last is possibly most true to nature: of all servitudes, that of a despotic court is possibly the most degrading to the heart and mind; and if the "*caractère haineux*," attributed to the *Duc de Saint Simon*, has not misguided his pen, of all courts since the pagan courts of Tiberius and Nero, that of Louis XIV. in his latter days abounded most in the monotony of human misery. The perfect portraiture of the master and his slaves, by the severe but vigilant *Saint Simon*, will descend to posterity together with the unjust eulogies of partial historians and biographers, and act as a corrective on minds that are liable to be dazzled by false glitter or deluded by false taste.

No country has produced a harvest of biography so copious or so excellent as France;—to seize and delineate a character exactly, neither to exaggerate nor extenuate, neither to omit nor to set down aught in malice, is the pride of French biography. This may not have been avowed, although, from the increasing and never satiated demand for French memoirs, it is evidently though silently admitted; and indeed, paradoxical as it may seem, we question whether any human invention can devise and string events together, as agreeably as they spontaneously fall in the chequered life of a man of enterprize. Still, with all due respect to the Sieur GOLDONI, we do not class his memoirs with those which have given interest to this style of composition. A decent writer of the language, in the early part of his memoir he is a clumsy copyist of Hamilton and *Marmontel*; while, a stranger to their natural and easy graces, he seeks an antithesis in almost every sentence, and an unseasonable pleasantry in almost every paragraph. The larger part of the two volumes which we have before us forms an almost continued tissue of successful or unsuccessful levities; and, as the unsuccessful are ninety and nine against one, the value of the work must rest not on style or sentiment, but on the events of a varied life, and on the light thrown by it (in a most unpleasant manner) on the progress of that theatrical talent of which the development has obtained for the author a considerable share of popularity. The very appearance of the pages, arranged as they evidently are by the author's direction, in so many divisions, presents a certain idea of unconnection, or, to use a French term, a *décousu* of manner, which, although attempted for the purpose of alluring, succeeds only in fatiguing the reader. We have no continued narrative; — all is ambitious, — all is scintillation, — digression, — *àpropos*, and consequently disappointment. Not to speak of that vulgar tone which is contracted by habitual intercourse with the green-rooms, and with the *prémières amoureuses* of so many strolling and stationary companies, we cannot but reprobate a certain light and trifling mention of actions and sentiments that are too important to be converted to a jest.

We are far from denying that Italy is much indebted to this writer for attempting the reform of her comic theatre; neither can the author, who has witnessed in his life-time eighteen editions of one hundred and fifty comedies in prose and verse, be in need of much apology for presenting to the world his portrait, drawn by his own hand: — but, besides the propriety of giving some account of himself, M. GOLDONI was influenced by another motive yet more forcible, viz. self-interest. Perceiving that several of his works were printed without his permission, (a larceny admitting no redress in a country like Italy, which is divided against itself,) the injured author, to put a stop (as far as he could) to future pillage, resolved to preface every subsequent volume with a detached morsel of his biography: which should serve the triple purpose of sign-manual to the genuineness of the edition, as a preface, and also as a farther advance to the history of his whole life; and, as it appears to have been his intention to *live writing*, he conceived that his last comedy for the stage would contain for its introduction nearly the last of its author's history. The dissipation of Paris, in which capital he passed his latter years, interrupted this scheme; and, contenting himself with translating from the Italian the part which was already finished, and making a few additions, he has furnished us with the present work.

GOLDONI was born at Venice, as he tells us, 'in a grand and noble mansion,' but his family was originally of Modena. His grandfather, Charles, consoled himself for the loss of his first wife by espousing a widow, one of whose daughters he consigned in marriage to his son. 'My mother,' says the author, 'was a pretty *brunette*: she was a little lame, but very inviting.' His grandfather, devoted to a life of pleasure, hired a magnificent country-house, six leagues from Venice, where he excited the envy of all the neighbourhood by the splendor of his entertainments: but, being deprived of this house by the artifice of an envious man, he settled at Carrara, farmed all the possessions belonging to the Prince at Venice, increased his expences, represented comedies and operas at his own house, and attracted thither the best actors and most famous musicians of the day. Visitors also flocked from every quarter. 'I was born,' says GOLDONI, 'during all this bustle, and in this abundance; how could I despise the theatre? How could I dislike gaiety?' —'My mother' (he continues, in the character of a comic writer, we suspect, rather than truly) 'brought me forth almost without a pang, and she loved me for it the better. I did not announce my entrance into the world by cries, and this gentleness seemed to give presages of my pacific character, which from that hour have never been belied. I was the jewel of the house; my nurse declared that I had wit; my mother charged herself with my education, and my father with my amusement. He constructed a puppet-shew: he directed the motions of the figures with his own hand, assisted by one or two of his friends; and at four years old I thought that the amusement was most delicious.'

Such is the coxcomb-style which pervades the early part of these memoirs. The death of the writer's grandfather, as we might naturally expect, unhinged a family subsisting on the riot of his house. Profusion was followed by penury; his father, although 'not deficient in wit,' had neglected his son's education, and a second child increased the embarrassment: but, as he was by no means fond of dwelling too long on sad reflections, he left Madame with a small part of the wreck of their finances, and took a journey to Rome for a little diversion. At four years of age, GOLDONI says, 'he read and wrote, knew his catechism by heart, was placed under a preceptor, and was fond of books;' and, although the sentences follow with an epigrammatic rapidity which confounds time and circumstance, at an age scarcely more advanced, we suppose, 'he was learning his grammar with facility, and the principles of geography and arithmetic: but his favourite reading was comedy.' His first author was *Ciccoguini*; and, as "the sports of children satisfy the child," he found great delight in the trivial scenes of the Florentine author. At eight years of age, he had frequently perused and began to imitate his model by a comedy of his own growth; and a copy of this infantine production was forwarded to his father, who, it appears, had been metamorphosed into a physician. "If," said Dr. *Goldoni*, charmed by this premature proof of genius, and calculating on the principles of arithmetic,—"if nine years yield four carats of wit, eighteen years should yield a dozen carats; and, by successive progression, he may arrive at perfection."

The author takes advantage of a visit to his father to describe his agitation on first mounting a horse. This is done in the style of farce, and is as unfortunate as, we think, most of his attempts at wit have proved through these volumes. The meeting took place at Perugia:

> 'My father made me remark the citadel built by Paul the Third, at a time when Perugia enjoyed republican liberty, under the pretence of benefiting the Perugians with a hospital for their sick, and for pilgrims. This pious successor to the chair of St. Peter, on finishing the work, introduced cannons into the place in carts covered with straw; and, when the *Chi viva* was uttered from the battlements, the citizens found it necessary to make answer, "Long live Paul III."'

It would be an idle attempt to follow Goldoni through his examination at the Jesuits' college of this city; and yet more idle to discover the reason of that sudden illumination, which, though he was the dullest in the school, on one happy day gave him the prize over all his competitors:—but so we suppose it was. A play and a play-house were his rage. His father, to gratify this darling desire, fitted up a theatre in a hall of the Hôtel of Antinori; and, as females are not allowed to act in the states of the Pope, the part of a lady and the prologue were conferred on our hero. The style of this prologue was the style of the Italian drama of that day; metaphor, hyperbole, antithesis, inflation, and bombast, had usurped the place of common sense on every stage in Italy: but his father was accustomed to it. The commencement is a fine relic of the art:

> 'Most benign heaven,' (this was the name given to the auditory,) 'to the rays of your most refulgent sun, behold us, like butterflies, expanding the tender wings of our conceits, and raising our flight to your meridian radiance.'—'This charming prologue brought me a bushel of sugar-plums, with which the theatre was filled, and I was almost blinded. This is the usual applause in the papal territories. The piece in which I played was *La Sorellina di Don Pilone;* and I was much commended: for in a country in which such *spectacles* are uncommon, the spectators are not nice.'

On his way from Perugia to Venice, the author embarked in an expedition with a company of comedians at Rimini, in whose society he performed the journey thence to Chiozza. Their assemblage is thus described:—'Twelve persons, actors and actresses, a prompter, a machinist, a keeper of the wardrobe, eight servants, four chamber-maids, two nurses, children of all ages, dogs, cats, monkeys, birds, pigeons, and a lamb: it was the ark of Noah.' Our readers will perceive in this description nothing beyond the ordinary oddity of a Margate hoy; yet it must be converted into an effort to raise a laugh; — and then a poor attempt at continuing the laugh is made by the description of a quarrel between the conductor of the boat and the *première amoureuse*, for not having prepared a *bouillon*, without which the lady could not dine. This sally is succeeded by another, about a cat belonging to the same interesting lady, which was pursued by a sailor. We notice these follies as characteristic of the Memoirs, and without any intention of doing violence to the dramas of Goldoni. Indeed, the same pen is to be discovered, and nearly the same manner, in all his works: but that which, when "submitted to the eye," is more pleasant, is frequently known to fail in description; more particularly when description professes truth for its canvass. We approve the rule of transferring scenes in real life to the theatre, which should be its shadow: but to reverse the rule would be to offend grossly against all the decencies and probabilities. The ground-work of these memoirs may be true: but the language of the first volume, at least, has always a dash of the theatre, a certain air of insincerity, which proves to us that every scene is not represented exactly as it passed. Thus, when his father returns unexpectedly, and rushes into the apartment of Mad. Goldoni, complaining of his son, the latter is during the whole time a listener in an adjoining closet; and the stale theatrical practice of dragging the young culprit from his hiding-place is repeated in the history of real life.

At Venice, Goldoni was articled to an attorney; and it will excite no small degree of surprize to hear that the first dramatist, who introduced the better school to the notice of his countrymen, began his literary career in the fortieth year of his age.— It cannot be expected that persons at our advanced time of life are possessed of sufficient agility to accompany this versatile author from Venice to Rome, and thence to Venice again, to Pavia, to Milan, and through all his mazy pilgrimages; neither do the events that occur on the several roads appear worthy of much remark. As he grew older, he became more and more sensible that his country had lost the true comic spirit. During his residence at Pavia, where he received the tonsure, he applied himself with attention to the Greek and Roman drama, and to the modern comedies of France, England, and Spain. To the method, style, and precision of the antient, he wished to add the interest and character which are to be found in many of the modern pieces. In the course of his vacations, some new light was thrown on his darling subject by the *Mandragore* of *Machiavelli*: which profligate but humorous piece was inadvertently lent to him by a monk, who was unacquainted with the wit and danger of the pages with which he furnished his young friend. Ten perusals of it left impressed on GOLDONI's mind the resolution to imitate its beauties and avoid its abominations: but these *divitiæ miseræ* are not gained without producing some evil effect on their possessor. On returning to Pavia, he was engaged in a dispute, common to collegians, with the townsmen of the place; and, while his young friends repelled force by force, GOLDONI, armed with a licentious pen, was convicted of having written a satire on the young ladies of Pavia, which caused his expulsion from college, and exposed him to the revenge of brothers and husbands who had been insulted in the persons of their female relatives.

At Udina, the author applied himself once more to the study of the law. He also frequented the church; and, as a specimen of his edification, his memory having carried off the divisions and substance of six and thirty sermons, he reduced them into the contracted and grotesque form of as many sonnets, of which the publication procured him the thanks of the orator and the admiration of all the good people of Udina. His residence at this city, however, was (as usual) interrupted by some idle intrigues, unworthy of us to mention, and of his more serious years to have remembered. To our complaint at these levities, we cannot but add another against the shame which he evinces at yielding for a time to a more honourable passion. At Chiozza, he was enamoured of a young and beautiful girl, at a convent-school, who was otherwise engaged; and his regret at parting is thus *feelingly* described: 'I no longer saw the Directress, nor her pupil; and, God be thanked, in a very short time I forgot the one and the other!' Another tender and virtuous attachment is laughed out of countenance in the same manner. The death of his father in some degree puts a stop to this biographical harlequinade, and brings back the author to rather better feelings and far better taste. This event fixed him in the profession of an advocate at Venice, whence he was obliged to remove in order to avoid the performance of an inconsiderate promise of marriage. In a short time afterward, we find him secretary to a governor of Milan: but he soon demands his discharge, becomes a wanderer, as before, always happy, generally poor, the associate of strollers, of abbés, and of peasants, until he found it safe to return to Venice. To this place he is peculiarly attached; 'they sing,' says he, 'in the squares, in the streets, and on the canals. The shop-keepers sing until they sell their merchandise; workmen sing on leaving their labor; and the gondoliers sing while they wait on their masters. The basis of the Venetian character is gaiety, and the basis of the Venetian language is

pleasantry.'

pleasantry.' In this lively city, where even the saints are made to lend their names to the theatres, he represented, with universal applause, his Belisario, which was followed by several other pieces, of unequal merit, but of general success. 'My language,' he says, 'was not elegant, and my versification never verged towards the sublime: but it was the better adapted to bring back to reason a public which had been accustomed to hyperboles, antitheses, and the absurdities of the gigantic and romantic style.'—Having experienced infidelity in the principal actress of the theatre, GOLDONI avenged himself by representing the affair in his Don Juan, and complimented the lady and her paramour by assigning to them, in the piece, the exact characters which they had played in actual life.

At Genoa, the author gained a prize in the lottery, and another in a wife, who formed the happiness of his existence; and from this time we cannot refuse him the merit of a complete reform in style and character. His first endeavour was to banish from his stage those whimsical personages, who are commonly known in the South by the appellation of the four Italian masks. The history of their families is curious; and from their antiquity they had so completely subjected Italian taste to their empire, that the whole peninsula at different times revolted against the innovator who wished to expel them from the comic scene. Let us hear M. GOLDONI:

'Before I explain my ideas on this subject, I conceive that my reader will thank me for a short digression on the origin and employment of these four masks.

'Comedy, which has at all times been the favourite spectacle of civilized nations, had shared the fate of the arts and sciences, and been swallowed up in the ruin of empires and the decline of letters: but the germ of comedy was never quite extinct in the fertile imagination of the Italians. The first who laboured to revive it, being disappointed, during a dark age, in skilful writers, had the boldness to compose plans, to divide them into acts and scenes, and to utter as impromptus, conversations, thoughts, and pleasantries which were previously concerted.

'Those who could read (and the rich were not of the number) observed that the comedies of Plautus and Terence always contained fathers who were dupes, debauched sons, amorous girls, lying valets, and corrupt maid-servants; and, traversing the different cantons of Italy, they took their fathers at Venice and at Bologna, their valets at Bergamo, their enamoured youths and maids, and their *soubrettes*, in the states of Rome and Tuscany.

'We must not wait for written proofs of this reasoning, because we are speaking of an age in which writing was nearly unknown, but I prove my assertion in this manner. The Pantaloon has always been Venetian, the doctor a Bolognese, and the *harlequin* and *clown* have * ever been from Bergamo; from these places, the actors took those comic characters which are known to us by the name of the four Italian masks.— I advance these remarks not entirely from my own conception: I am in possession of a manuscript of the fifteenth century, in good preservation, bound in parchment, which contains a hundred and twenty subjects or *canvasses* of Italian pieces, called *comedies of the art;* and of which the principal basis consists invariably of a pantaloon, a Venetian merchant; the doctor, a lawyer of Bologna; Brighella and Harlequin, valets of Bergamo; the first quick and active, the other heavy. Their antiquity and permanent existence prove their origin. — With regard to their employment, the pantaloon and the doctor, whom the Italians call the two old men, represent the part of fathers and other venerable characters, *(les rôles à manteau.)* The first is a merchant, because Venice was in those antient times the richest and most extensive commercial country in Italy. He has ever preserved the antient Venetian costume. The black robe and woollen bonnet are yet worn at Venice; while the red waistcoat, breeches cut like drawers, and red stockings and slippers, represent exactly the dress of the antient inhabitants of the Adriatic lagoons; and the beard, which was a great ornament in those distant ages, has been carried to a grotesque extreme in these latter days.

'The second old man, called the doctor, has been selected from the legal profession for the purpose of contrasting the learned with the commercial man; and he is from Bologna, because an university existed in that city, which, with all the ignorance of the time, yet adhered to the charges and emoluments of professors. His dress preserves the antient costume of the bar of Bologna, which is nearly the same to this hour; and the singular mask, which covers the forehead and nose, has been imitated from a wine-mark which deformed the face of a lawyer in those days. This tradition yet exists among the amateurs of the comedy of art.

'The Brighella and Harlequin, called in Italy the two Zanis, have been borrowed from Bergamo. The adroitness of the first, and the extreme heaviness of the second, are proofs of this assertion; because in no other country do we find these two extremes in the class of the people. Brighella represents an intriguing, roguish, dishonest valet. His dress is a kind of livery; and his tawny mask is a satire on the complexion of the inhabitants of those lofty mountains, scorched by the heat of the sun. Some actors of these parts have taken the name of *fenocchio*, *fiqueto*, and *scapino:* but, under every name, the character of the valet of Bergamo remains unchanged.

'The harlequins also have their different names: but they are always natives of Bergamo, heavy and clownish; and their dress represents a poor devil who picks up pieces of different stuffs and colours to mend his cloths. Their hat corresponds with their beggary; and their tail of a hare, with which it is decorated, is to this day the usual ornament of the peasants of Bergamo.

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* These two personages are exactly reversed in this country. The real and original Italian *harlequin* is the heavy, and the Brighella the light and active *zani*. The former is attired in a dress of various colours, to shew his poverty and propensity to stealing. *Rev.*

'I conceive that I have thus clearly demonstrated the origin of the four masks of Italian comedy.'

It would be impossible to conceive a state of things more unfavourable to the efforts of Goldoni, than the prejudice for the four masks. The mask for ever destroyed all expression. Whether the actor was impressed with joy, sorrow, love, or anger, the same dull leathern face presented itself to the spectators. In vain might he gesticulate, and change the tone of his voice; never could he succeed in discovering, by the features of his face, which are the interpreters of the heart, the different passions that assailed him. The masks of Greece and Rome were a sort of speaking-trumpets, devised for raising the voice to an elevation suited to the vast extent of their amphitheatres: but the passions and sentiments were not carried to that degree of refined delicacy which is requisite to modern times, and more especially to the French style. An actor of these days is expected to represent a variety of expression, and variety was precluded by the mask.

'I was assailed,' adds Goldoni, 'by continued and increasing complaints: both parties equally annoyed me, and I endeavoured to satisfy them both. I condescended to produce some *pièces à canevas*, (pieces in which the plot is indicated by the author, and the words are left to the impromptus of the performers,) without ceasing to represent others of character. I introduced masks into the former, and employed the noble and interesting comedy in the latter. Each part had its share of satisfaction; and, with time and patience, I brought them all to one mind, and had the pleasure of seeing myself authorized to follow my own taste, which, in a few years, became the prevailing taste in Italy.'

Next to the monstrous absurdity of the four Italian masks, nothing sets the Italian character in a more grotesque light than the sacred names given to the theatres of Venice, on which these buffooneries had been so much applauded:—Saint Samuel, St. John Chrysostom, St. Luke, and St. Angelo. In commencing his theatrical career, many were the artifices by which Goldoni attempted to build his new school on the ruin of the old. To instruct an audience not acquainted with the principles of criticism, he represented a critical dialogue in verse called *Il teatro comico*, containing the best canons for criticism, and particularly useful as a glossary to his own pieces. At one time, he had to encounter the religious vapours of a first actress; at another, the necessity of giving his amorous parts to a superannuated dame; and at another, he had to labour under the disadvantage of a theatre too large for the cadences of voice or the expression of countenance. Still, with ineffable good humour, he wrote the almost incredible number of sixteen pieces within the season; and, from the time of quitting the theatre of St. Angelo to his arrival at Paris, his hours were exclusively devoted to a labour which now began to degenerate into drudgery. In passing through Loretto, on a journey to Rome, he treats us with an account of our *Lady of Loretto*, and her shrine, in the true style of the olden credulity. His interview with the Pope is droll; and, as at Paris his performances failed of success from their buffoonery, so at Rome his first comedy was lost through the want of Punchinello.

At the age of fifty-two, he accepted an invitation from Signor *Zannuzzi* to compose for the Italian comedy of Paris: but the characteristic gaiety of the people, for whom he was to write, led him into an error common to all those who have never visited their capital. Imagining the comic genius to reign there uncontrouled, he gave wings to his imagination, and successively failed in almost every attempt to please. The rigid laws, to which the French comedy is subject, were to GOLDONI so many fetters; and, instead of conducting the Italian comedy, he was glad to accept a pension from the court as instructor to the princesses. In this new employment, we find him happy in himself, attached to his wife, the guardian of his brother's children, performing all the proper duties of life, and conciliating all the friends within his reach. A long residence in this capital gave him an insight into the fastidious taste of the Parisian world: incessant application to the language was rewarded by its attainment; and the author who had failed in his maternal tongue was applauded, to the utmost of his hopes, for his *Bourru Bienfaisant*. It was his intention to have read this piece to *Rousseau*, and he had obtained the philosopher's permission to that effect: but he was restrained from availing himself of it, by reflecting that the character would infallibly be applied by his captious hearer to himself. A man of extreme benevolence and beneficence, dashed with a certain waspish fretfulness, was a personage new to the French stage, and its success was a sort of theatrical epoch.

The life of this easy, benevolent, and ingenious man now consists in little more than excursions of pleasure from Paris to Versailles, Marly, Compiègne, Fontainebleau, &c., whither he went yearly in the train of the court. He lives to relate to us the marriage of the Dauphin with the beautiful Marie

Antoinette, and is a witness of the festivals which celebrated the births of two of their children. His old age is soothed by the urbanity of numerous and respected friends; and, however we may reprobate the style of these memoirs, we cannot but applaud the tone of benevolence and gratitude which pervades them.

We have purposely forborn to notice the dramatic compositions of GOLDONI, because a future article will comprize a work by M. *Sismondi*, in which they necessarily form a prominent and distinctive feature. If he had the credit of expelling from the stage the pedantic compositions of the Abbé *Chiari*, and of rising victor from his struggle with the Comte *Charles Gozzi*:—if he tore off the Masks, and gave expression to the exterior as well as to the language of his characters;—if many of his situations are happily contrived, many of his scenes natural, and all unaffected;—yet will he shrink from a comparison with *Molière*, even in the latter's inferior pieces. *Voltaire*, it is true, has said that the appearance of GOLDONI at the Italian theatre might be called, like the poem of *Trissino*, "*Italy delivered from the Goths.*" This compliment is well deserved; and, as it is *exactly* true, we take leave of the author in whose honour it was said, until *Sismondi* shall fix our attention on the dramas which called it forth.

The London edition of this book so teems with typographical errors, that an inexperienced person might sometimes hesitate in recognizing the language in which it is written:—*Ex. gr.*, *sa caractère* for *son caractère*:—*Je me fis que* for *Je ne fis que*:—*plupat* for *plûpart*:—*le ruines* for *la ruine*:—*la nom* for *le nom*:—*le Philosophie Anglois* for *le Philosophe Anglois*, &c. Indeed, three errors of this kind per page would be the very lowest estimate throughout the whole work.

ART. III. *L'Angleterre au Commencement du 19me Siècle; &c.* i.e. England at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. By M. DE LEVIS. 8vo. pp. 420. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s. 6d.

THE travels of a foreigner in England have naturally a powerful interest with readers in this country. Nations, like individuals, place a part of their happiness in character, and cannot tutor themselves into an indifference respecting the praise or blame of their neighbours. They may ascribe to bigotry, to prejudice, to malice, or to ignorance, the unwelcome observations which they encounter: but it is only inasmuch as they hope to refute, that they can sincerely despise satire. In all things, the way to mend is to listen patiently to hostile criticism; and we should rather mistrust the flattery of native cajolers of the people than the censure of enlighetned strangers.

Perhaps the English deserve uncourtly guests, because they are not urbane visitors. They do not enter a foreign country in the spirit of accommodation, but usually complain aloud of everything which they find otherwise than at home; and, accustomed to no privations, but willing to pay for indulgence, they claim all sorts of *supplies* at the command of a full purse. A foreigner, on the contrary, is more aggrieved by the dearness than by the deficiency of reception here. Bred to a military disdain of luxury, when only personal gratification is at stake, he can contentedly forego every comfort which he is not seen to spare; his orders at an inn are rather a sacrifice to appearance than to enjoyment; and if the expected decorums be but observed, neatness itself will be offered up to economy. The travelling Englishman is constantly occupied in teaching his own way to others; the travelling foreigner, in learning whatever will facilitate his progress cheaply.

M. DE LEVIS, author of the volume before us, was born in Canada, and is the son of the Marshal *Levis* who commanded there before the peace of 1763. He has visited England five several times, possesses our language with almost native intimacy, has enjoyed the advantage of various and distinguished introductions, and has been attracted to Hull, Newcastle, Edinburgh, Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham, as well as to the more usual haunts of foreigners, Portsmouth, London, Oxford, Bath, and Bristol. He is therefore tolerably qualified by extensive observation to delineate the characteristics of our country: but, having seen all that is magnificent in Europe, he is somewhat fastidious.

Half a century ago, the Irish Abbé *Grosley* drew up in French an entertaining account of Great Britain. His four volumes, intitled *Londres*, were printed in 1770, and were well abridged and translated by Dr. Nugent. More recently, M. *Baert* printed a geographical description of this island, under the title of *Tableau de la Grande Bretagne*, which is the usual source of French information concerning us. It is welcome to find in a more compendious form, and in a less formal compend, the substance of current knowlege and of circulating opinion.

M. LEVIS, having made his remarks at different times on the same objects, has not given a journal of his tour, but rather a collection of the results impressed on his mind by successive visits to the same district. In other books of travels, the scenery is attached to the successive motions of the observer, the face of the country is painted and the style of building is criticized, in the order and at the moment in which it comes beneath the author's eye:—but here the traveller vanishes from the scene; instead of our moving with him, the towns are made to come to us; there is inspection, but the inspector seems lost. In short, it is the book of a geographer: but of a geographer who, like Herodotus, has visited the places which he describes. It is meritorious to disdain egotism; yet the personal interest which we take in a traveller, who is the perpetual hero of his own tale, adds to the vivacity of a narrative even when it detracts from its completeness.

The first chapter describes the passage from Calais to Dover; and it is observed that both havens ought to be deepened, so that vessels might be able to enter with passengers even at low water. The pettiness of the houses at Dover offends; the rooms, though neat, are said to be like ship-cabins, and appear to be made for a people of Lilliputians; the houses at Calais are on a more noble scale.

Chapter II. describes the route from Dover to Rochester. The roads are narrow, the cultivation is not assiduous, and the same air of littleness remains at Canterbury. The cathedral is censured for interior nakedness, the tasteless choice of the protestant iconoclasts; and the hop-grounds are said to be far less picturesque than vineyards. Italian vineyards are no doubt picturesque, where the vines climb up the elm and the poplar, and hang festoons of grapes from tree to tree: but a Burgundy vine-yard is not handsomer than a bean-field.

In the third chapter, the author describes the interval between Chatham and London; and some old anecdotes of highwaymen are repeated, which belong to manners of other times. Here the country begins to make an impression; the docks, the view of London from Shooter's-hill, the commencing tunnel at Gravesend, the marine establishments at Woolwich, and the hospital at Greenwich, call forth some symptoms of recovery from disappointment.

Chapter IV. begins to paint London. The houses are characterized as all alike, without ornament, ill furnished, and inconvenient. The last epithet is surely improper; since they comprize, in the least possible space, those accommodations which our peculiar manners render necessary. That practical equality of enjoyment, which disposes such vast classes of the people to live in a way apparently so alike, is one of the meritorious features of our form of society.

The fifth chapter speaks of the shops, which are said to disappoint when entered; all that is worth seeing having been placed in the window. However beautiful are the foot-pavements, it is justly observed that we have no long sheltered walk in London,—no *Palais-royal*, as at Paris,—no *rue du Po*, as at Turin,—where in wet weather the loungers can saunter under arched porticoes.

An antiquarian history of London is given in Chapter VI. The derivation of the name has hitherto been sought in Cimbric language, under the mistaken idea that Britons speaking Welsh once inhabited the eastern coast: but of this we have neither historic evidence nor natural probability. The Romans had already appointed a *comes littoris Saxonici*, (see the *Notitia* in Gale's *Scriptores*, 1591,) long before the arrival of Hengist and Horsa; and in this Saxon coast they included the entire eastern promontory, from Kent to Norfolk. Consequently, the Saxon language was domesticated along the Oriental shore during the Roman domination. We ought, therefore, to derive the name of London, which first occurs in Tacitus, from Saxon words, such as *long town*, and not, with Camden, from Welsh words.

Chapter VII. treats of the principal churches; and St. Paul's, Westminster Abbey, St.Stephen's, Walbrook, and St. Martin's, are severally praised. In the eighth chapter, the hospitals, and in the ninth the courts of justice, are introduced. Westminster Hall and Newgate are noticed as fine monuments of architecture. The rest of our public buildings, with the exception of two bridges, are treated with excessive contempt. No doubt, a want of simplicity, a want of magnitude, and a want of wholeness, are betrayed in many of our public buildings: but taste in architecture is not easily reduced to fixed principles. We might wish to see churches and courts of justice in the Gothic style; an India-house with Hindoo decorations of architecture; academies and theatres in the Greek taste; and the dwellings of the nobility in the newest European fashion. In a commercial town which has intercourse with the antipodes, the Chinese merchant should build on a model from Canton, and the Greek merchant on a model from Smyrna. Every manner may be good, because it is adapted to its purpose, which implies no breach of costume; it is the motly, the incongruous, the mixture of distinct ages and nations, which is chiefly reprehensible. Any pure manner, applied appropriately, may be defended by the critic.

The attack on the British Museum at p.198 is, we fear, in some respects justifiable. Why not devote separate establishments to a national library, to a cabinet of natural history, and to a museum of antiquities? No one of these collections is good of its kind, nor well conducted, because it is jumbled together in such heterogeneous partnership. Many foolish objects of curiosity are shewn at the British Museum, which a a private collector would throw into a rubbish-cart, but which, because they belong to the public, must continue to make us ridiculous.

In the tenth chapter, M. De Levis gives a better idea of the practical nature of the British constitution than most foreign writers have afforded. The author is clearly conversant with our political condition from actual and skilful observation.— The eleventh chapter treats of the royal prerogative; the twelfth, of the house of peers; and the thirteenth and fourteenth, of the house of commons. The fifteenth examines the effects of the constitution on interior prosperity; and the sixteenth discusses its effects on the administration of justice. All these political chapters display a knowlege of the subject that has hitherto been very rare among continental writers; and though superfluous to us, they deserve to be welcomed in France, where liberty is yet in its infancy, and the art of educating it deserves the attention of its parents.

This book is yet incomplete, and is to be extended to four volumes, in which the writer intends to exhaust the topic of Britain. Though it is not written with vivacity, it is drawn up with judgment. The author has been a great traveller; and calls in the aid of remote comparison to illustrate his descriptions. He can compare the miserable wharfs on the Thames with the magnificent quays of the Neva, or the Garonne; he can contrast the landscapes of Swisserland and Italy, with the lakes in Cumberland or with Richmond-hill; and he can measure our Monument against the Trajan column, or that of the *Place Vendôme:* — but, alas! his verdict is not flattering to our vanity. Among our works of art, he seems bewildered by multiplicity of insignificance; and his applause is reserved for the police of our hospitals, and the polity of our constitution.

It is of no small importance to the reputation of nations, that a minister of the interior should be a man of taste: —that, if buildings are to be erected at the public expence, he should know how to choose between plans which will do honour to a country with posterity, and plans which excite the sneer of every travelled stranger on the public taste. A rage for accommodating some political friends with jobs has occasioned, in this nation, repeated sacrifices of the artist of talent to the artist of influence. From the London docks, which Revely had conceived so magnificently, to the recent naumachia and fire-works in the Park, the question is not whose plan is the noblest, but by whom is this plan supported? We are contented with the nursling of Patronage, whether or not it be Merit, the child of Genius. "*Pudet hæc opprobria nobis,*" &c.

Art. IV. *Voyage aux Antilles*, &c.; *i.e.* A Voyage to the Antilles, or Windward Islands, and South America, begun in 1767, and finished in 1802; containing Historical Notices of the Revolts, Wars, and memorable Exploits witnessed by the Author; new Details of the Manners of the different Nations which he visited; an Account of the Diseases occurring in each Climate; statistical Notices; Observations on the Influence of Climate on Men, Plants, and Animals; Geological Researches on the Primitive State of the Globe, and the Changes which it continues to undergo; and Remarks on the Effects of the general Current of the Ocean, Tides, Winds, Monsoons, &c. By J. B. Le Blond, Physician and Natural Historian, Correspondent of the Academy of Sciences, the Royal Society of Medicine, the Imperial Institute, &c. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 474. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

In reading this long title, the attention is naturally caught by the extraordinary time which was occupied in M. Le Blond's peregrinations. He went abroad, in the true spirit of adventure, at an early age; and, having passed thirty-five years under a vertical sun, he has had the singular good fortune to preserve a stock of health sufficient to enable him to communicate, in his declining years, a full account of his multifarious remarks. The present being only the first volume, much of the promise made in the title-page yet remains to be fulfilled: but enough is now exhibited to satisfy the public of the probability that the succeeding volumes will not be devoid of attraction. M. Le Blond, however, has not studied the art of composition, and relates the substance of his observations without much attention to method: but he is an interesting writer, both for the variety and the general accuracy of his statements. He confines himself, in the present portion of his details, to the Antilles, or Windward Islands, and leaves the continent of Spanish America for his next volume. He begins by describing the sensations produced on perusing the labours of a celebrated Naturalist, and the hopes which they inspired in a young and enterprizing mind:

'The works of *Buffon*,' he says, 'had impressed me with a strong desire to study that part of geology which exhibits the natural history of the world in its primitive state, and its subsequent changes; and I had hopes of succeeding in discovering the origin of the primary and secondary mountains, as well as of the vallies and plains in which the regularity of the strata shewed that they were formerly a part of the expanse of the ocean. Hence my attention was directed to the physical causes of the winds, the tides, and the chief phænomena resulting from their operation. The decomposition and consumption of the salt and the waters of the ocean by the first and second kingdoms of nature were the continual object of my meditations; and I was thence led to examine the influence of different degrees of temperature on plants, animals, and the human complexion.'

Animated by these projects, he set sail from Bourdeaux in 1766, and arrived at Martinique soon after the dreadful hurricane of that year. Here he had the good fortune to fall under the care of a planter who inhabited a healthy spot in the country, and enabled the youthful traveller to become seasoned to the climate with less than ordinary danger. M. Le B. relates that, on surveying the garden and other grounds around his friend's house, he gazed with delight on the variety of beautiful plants and fruits which were scattered before his eyes, and could not help imagining that he had reached one of the most favoured regions in the universe. He was particularly struck with the discovery that this rich scenery underwent little alteration at any time of the year. On breaking forth, however, into effusions of transport at this magnificent sight, his experienced friend corrected his ideas by an explanation nearly in the following terms:

'That non-interruption of our vegetation which delights you forms, in fact, a great deduction from the value of our gardens. If your fine parterres in Europe were to preserve their flowers throughout all the year, and if the severity of your winter were not to withdraw their beauty during several months, the charm of novelty would be lost, and your passion for these pretty play-things would be succeeded by complete indifference. In this country, I candidly confess, we have no taste for such gratification; our plantations furnishing our only object, and our sole view being to produce as large a crop, and to make as much money, as we can. See these coffee-trees in flower, and observe the scent with which they perfume the air; examine that dazzling whiteness, so admirably contrasted with the dark green of their foliage, and say whether any thing in Europe be equal to this charming prospect? Still so little importance do we attach to all this, that sugar-canes take, in our estimate, the lead of these beautiful coffee-trees; and the ambition of the planter is to exchange the culture of the latter for that of the former. Now let us speak of more serious evils; you see before you the marks of hurricanes, the devastations of which are such as must put all prudent men on their guard; because, on the occurrence of such a calamity, the articles which we have to purchase rise in general to a very exorbitant price. Our rule consequently is to mind only that which is urgent, and to overlook matters of mere taste or elegant enjoyment. As we cannot possess the variety of amusements afforded by a town-life in Europe, we acquire an habitual indifference, in consequence of our uniform way of passing our time on a plantation. Even here, however, people insist on having pleasure of some kind; and the consequence is a shameful libertinism, or the habit of gambling, which leads both to extravagant expence and to the neglect of steady industry.—Add to this the occasional losses of our slaves, and the reduction of the value of colonial produce, which is frequent in a state of war; together with the unfortunate coincidence of an enhancement of the provisions which we are obliged to buy. The Creoles who succeed to property are in general improvident, and fall into embarrassed circumstances; while planters of European birth are too apt, after having acquired opulence by long exertion, to make a pompous display in England, and to commit their plantations to hired managers, whose misconduct frequently obliges the proprietor to come out again to the colony at an advanced period of life. From all these considerations, you will perceive that West India property is very precarious, and that you would form a very wrong opinion of it were you to judge from appearances."

Though not regularly educated as a physician, M. Le Blond was soon induced to assume that character by the persuasion of his friend, who assured him that he would acquit himself better than most of the profession in the French colonies. The adoption of this advice flattered likewise the inquisitive tendency of the traveller, as it gave him an ostensible character under which he might visit a variety of places, and obtain access to the intimacy of the persons most likely to supply him with useful information. As his years and experience increased, the profession also afforded him the means of decent support, and enabled him to make the tour of most of the West India islands. We shall see presently the success with which he practised medicine at St. Lucia and Grenada: but the following narrative, connected with his early residence in Martinique, must not be passed over, since it places in a striking point of view the fatigue which he was ready to encounter in pursuit of knowlege:—

'I was accustomed to see a Creole come from time to time to the house in which I lived, whose appearance indicated great poverty, as he walked bare-footed, and had his body covered with only a miserable shirt. His subsistence was earned by selling large frogs, which were in regular demand in the market of St. Pierre, and which he caught in the neighbouring woods by torch-light. To hunt for frogs in woods that had neither lakes nor rivers was a strange mode of life; especially in the case of a person whose friends were respectable, and had made several attempts to put him in a better situation. However, although he had lost half of one foot in the pursuit of these reptiles by the bite of a snake, he could not settle himself in any other line, being addicted to drinking, and incapable of submitting to the least restraint. His plan was to provide himself with several torches of a very light kind of wood; and, between two and three o'clock in the morning, after the rain or fog had disappeared, to make his way into the forests, which were then in a moist state, in quest of the frogs that were scattered up and down. The appearance of the light made them leap or run towards it, on which the Creole seized the opportunity of striking them on the head with the flat side of his sabre, and threw them immediately into his sack. This sport is not a matter of great difficulty, but it is very dangerous, because snakes also are accustomed to run towards the light, and the adventurer is in great risk of being bitten, unless he succeeds in killing them by a lucky blow with the edge of his sabre. The Creole had killed several in this manner, for, though they do not abound in forests so cold and damp as those in question, they are likely to be found with frogs, which they devour with great avidity.

'This man being perfectly acquainted with the Pitons or conical elevation of the Carbet, (in Martinique,) I proposed that he should serve me as a guide on an excursion thither. "With all my heart," said he, "provided that you lay in a good stock of *taffia* (liquor): we will set off to morrow morning, at day-break, for the distance is considerable; and, although I am lame, I assure you that you will hardly be able to keep up with me." My landlord, smiling at the fatigue which I was about to undergo in order to satisfy what appeared to him an idle curiosity, kindly prepared the necessary provisions, and gave me a negro to carry them. We started, at the call of the frog-hunter, at break of day; and by seven o'clock we reached a part of the mountain which was extremely steep and slippery, so that I could not keep myself from falling without leaning on the branches. The Creole, with a cutlass, cutting down right and left the shrubs and branches which were in the way, still kept moving on at a pace which I could scarcely sustain. The negro, who followed with a large basket on his head, was necessarily slower, and excited the abuse of the impatient Creole; who, however, soon held his tongue when apprized that, if we hurried, the negro might perhaps break the bottles. On my remarking that the trees at this elevation had not suffered from the late hurricane, my guide informed me that the whirlwinds did not extend their rage so high. Our farther progress led to tracts in which the mud was half way up the leg; we were now three thousand feet above the level of the sea, and the surrounding soil was a mere marsh. The Creole, however, was indefatigable, and kept on his way singing, and taking from time to time a draught of his favourite liquor; an example which the negro and I were at last obliged to follow, in consequence of the cold and fatigue. We stopped to breakfast at a spot on which the Creole was in the habit of keeping a small stock of wood for fuel, and here he now cooked five or six frogs that were caught in the course of our morning's walk. Having roasted them in due form on the embers, and seeing that I discovered no relish for them, he ate with great composure the hind legs, and gave the rest to the negro.

'After we had been some time on the mountain, the sky became obscured, the east wind arose, and the clouds were collected over our heads. The Creole therefore advised me to proceed to a plantation three miles off, where he was known, and where we should arrive without any injury; while to return home would expose us to be drenched with rain, and immersed in clouds to such a degree that we could not distinguish each other at the distance of a few yards. This, however, was exactly the kind of spectacle which I wished to behold, and we commenced our route homewards: but I soon felt myself fatigued, and sought a further supply of vigour in the taffia, which was poured out to the great satisfaction of the frog-hunter, who repeatedly declared that this was one of the pleasantest days of his life. We resumed our course through a thick mist, which soon turned to rain, and wetted us to the skin. It was almost as dark as night, so that I met with many unlucky thumps against the trunks of trees; and, in descending the steep part of the mountain, we were obliged to walk backwards, as on a ladder, the Creole going first, the negro last, and I in the middle. At length, on getting to the level ground, we had the satisfaction of being enabled to stand upright: the rain and the east wind had now ceased, but the heat was very oppressive after the coldness of the region in which we had been. Towards sun-set, we reached home, covered with mud, and in a miserable condition; "exactly," said my landlord, "as I told you, when I warned you of the inconveniences of this strange excursion."

A considerable part of the volume is occupied by medical observations and directions. Like other experienced practitioners, M. Le B. advises Europeans and North Americans, on arriving for the first time in the West Indies or any climates in the torrid zone, to avoid, with the greatest care, an exposure to the sun, especially when the head is uncovered; the inflammation in the blood from this exposure being always pernicious and often mortal. They are subject in any situation to an illness, which proves more or less dangerous according to the condition and residence of the patients. Even when they disembark at a town which is free from the influence of marshes, they are exposed to a stagnant atmosphere and to oppressive heats; after which, a relaxation of nerves and a fermentation of the blood are announced by itchings and slight eruptions on the skin like flea-bites. With the exception of this inconvenience, the health may be in a tolerably good state, since the humours may thus undergo the requisite alteration by degrees, and the individual become seasoned; which is marked by a certain paleness of the skin, succeeding to the lively tint of a cool climate. If no eruption takes place, or if it be suddenly suppressed; if a person has the misfortune to receive a stroke of the sun, or is so imprudent as to sleep in hot and ill-aired situations; the consequence is an acute fever, preceded by giddiness and violent head-ache, pain in the loins, an inclination to vomit, hæmorrhage, &c. These unpleasant symptoms may be mitigated by letting blood speedily: but this course, when too often repeated, as was formerly the case among the French settlers, incurs the danger of producing a fatal decay of strength.

Laxatives, such as a strong decoction of tamarinds, or lemonade mixed with a few grains of tartar-emetic, succeeded best when the cases were bilious: but, if a delirium existed in addition to the loss of strength, the rule was to employ blisters, cordials, camphor, an infusion of cinnamon in wine, with strong doses of bark frequently repeated, and sometimes accompanied by laudanum. Such were the remedies generally used by English practitioners; and, if the pulse began to resume its accustomed course, the patient recovered without hazard of a relapse: but, if repeated bleedings had been employed, the consequence was a very tedious recovery, attended frequently with obstructions of the spleen, jaundice, and a degree of weakness which took away the desire of exercise; in short, an impoverishment of the blood, which brought on symptoms of dropsy. In this alarming situation, the only plan was to return to a cool climate, whether in Bermuda, North America, or Europe; the effect of which was in general so successful, that invalids, whose friends had never expected to see them again, frequently came back in eight or ten months in as good health as they ever possessed.

'It was apparent from the freshness of my look,' says M. Le B. 'that I had not yet paid the *tribute*, or, in other words, undergone a seasoning illness. My landlord repeatedly told me that I ought to be blooded, and use evacuants, &c., but, above all, to avoid going much into the town (St. Pierre), where I might catch the yellow fever. Having, on a particular occasion, passed two days there, I felt myself attacked in the evening by giddiness, to such a degree as almost to make me fall down in the street. I was carried to an inn, where a copious bleeding removed the giddiness. My landlord in the country, apprized of my situation by an express, sent me early next morning a hammock and two negroes, who carried me directly to his house; where the purity and freshness of the air succeeded in accomplishing my recovery, with the aid of a second bleeding, and an infusion of tamarinds and quassia. My colour returned, but less fresh than before; and, had I continued in town, in the midst of calms and oppressive heats, the consequence would have been a serious and perhaps a fatal illness.'

The author is not one of those who assert that the danger of a hot climate arises only from the imprudence of the individual; on the contrary, he doubts whether the most careful regimen, or the most tranquil mode of life, can do more than lessen in a certain degree the hazard to the new comer. The latter has to contend both with excessive heat and with the scorbutic habit which is always contracted more or less during the passage; and if to this be added the landing at an unhealthy spot, or in company with a numerous expedition, the yellow fever can scarcely fail to make its appearance. The best chance of escape is in passing several months after arrival in an elevated situation, where the heat is moderate, and the individual may accustom himself gradually to the use of the fruits and provisions of the country.

The cession of St. Lucia by the late treaty to Great Britain has given that island an additional interest in our eyes, and we regret to find the testimony of M. Le Blond added to that of others respecting its insalubrity. This is more particularly the case at the Careenage, a naval station of great importance, where our homeward-bound merchantmen collected in the alarm of the year 1805, as the safest anchorage in the Windward islands; and the value of this station is supposed to have been a primary motive with our government for insisting on the retention of the island in the late treaty.

'The end of the long bay of the Careenage,' says the author, 'is marked by a marshy plain, which at the time of my visit (1767) was covered with trees lately felled; and, though on my second arrival five years afterward the marsh was drained, the town continued extremely hot. A fort placed at the right of the entrance of the highest mountain, called the Morne Fortunée, commanded both the roadstead and the town. On reaching the inn, I found about a dozen inhabitants of the neighbourhood, whose pale complexions sufficiently proved the unhealthiness of the air. Eight or ten small vessels, chiefly from North America, were at anchor in the road; while some soldiers in the fort were walking slowly along, apparently recovering from serious illness. They told me that a number of their comrades had died, and that the survivors were hardly able to perform the duty. During the whole night, we heard the barking of a dog in a small American vessel, and, seeing no person appear on deck, we went on board, and found several of the crew in a dying state; the others had probably gone away in the boat. I saw the master disembark, covered with livid spots on his face and breast, while blood dropped from his lips and gums; his skin was yellow; and he vomited black matter: in the course of two hours, he expired. A similar illness manifested itself on board of other American ships; while vessels from Martinique, manned by negroes, or persons seasoned to the climate, had not a single person on the sick list.'

In another part of the work, (p. 295.) M. Le Blond gives an account of his manner of treating the small-pox, a malady of the most destructive character among the negroes. The darkness of their skin prevented the colour of the eruption from being clearly perceived, but it was invariably of an unfavourable kind. His rule was to administer a strong dose of bark, with sulphuric acid or lemon-juice; wine properly diluted with water was their only drink; and the air of the room was purified several times in a day with the steam of vinegar. His medical partner having objected to this mode of treatment, they agreed to make trial of their respective methods on four negroes who were seized with the infection; and the result was that the two who underwent blood-letting and purgatives died before the third day, the time at which M. Le B.'s patients had become covered with the eruption as with a crust. Their pulse was strong; and the moisture on their tongue, which until then had been dry and black, indicated an approaching cure. Unluckily, most of the French practitioners adhered to the plan of bleeding and evacuating, having strong prejudices against the use of bark; and the consequence was a very general mortality among their negroes, which was not stopped until the year 1771, when the example of the English settlers at last induced the French to resort to inoculation. M. Le B.'s rule was to inoculate the negroes without any preparation, whenever they were in good health; and, having been successful in more than two hundred cases, he adopted the plan of administering inoculation at the rate of twenty shillings for each person, but under the promise of paying 50l. for every death: on which system, he inoculated more than five hundred without losing a single patient. The planters, seeing his uniform good fortune, and the simplicity of his method, began to apply it themselves to their negroes; and the success of the practice was almost universal.

St. Lucia was first settled by the English in 1639: but the planters, few in number, were soon afterward put to death by the Charibs. In 1650, forty French colonists ventured to take up their abode there, but experienced a similar fate before the lapse of many years. The island being captured in 1664 by the English was evacuated by them in two years, and repossessed by the French, who were however deprived of it in the course of the war of 1689. For a long time subsequently, all regular cultivation was stopped, and the island was frequented only by a few wood-cutters. After the peace of Utrecht, some seamen and deserters took refuge there; and Marshal *d'Estrées*, having obtained a grant of it from the French crown, carried over troops and cultivators: but the English government considered this as contrary to treaty, and in 1731 a convention was established for the evacuation of the island by both nations, under the stipulation that the ships of each might continue to resort thither for wood and water. In 1754 the French once more established themselves here in force; and the English, finding their account in the contraband trade thus opened, gave themselves no farther trouble, but allowed the retention of the island by the French to be sanctioned by the treaty of 1763. From that time, the latter endeavoured to push the cultivation of the colony, but their inexperienced efforts were attended with the loss of many lives and of much capital. While lamenting the mismanagement of their negroes, M. Le B. is led to advert to the scheme of bringing over Chinese settlers to cultivate the ground; — an expedient which, though unsuccessful on one occasion, (we mean in Trinidad,) is likely, we hope, to be renewed with better prospects in this season of confirmed tranquillity.

The population of St. Lucia was increased by the emigrations of French settlers from St. Vincent, whose plantations attracted the attention of English colonists arriving from other islands with the command of capital; and the temptation of the offers from the latter was not to be resisted, especially by men who had the option of obtaining land for nothing in St. Lucia. The ease with which loans are procured, on particular occasions, from British merchants, is often injurious to an imprudent planter; and M. Le Blond represents this as particularly the case with those of his countrymen who were settled at Grenada. Being in general very ignorant of calculation, they saw only the fair side of the question, and considered an interest of six per cent. as a mere trifle in comparison with the large incomes which they grasped in imagination from their estates. The magnitude of the intervening charges for the construction of buildings and the purchase of negroes was overlooked in their sanguine anticipations; purchases were made at very long credit; and for a season the planter seemed to overflow with wealth. Their humble dwellings were superseded by splendid mansions; and the cost of their rum and sugar-works amounted frequently to 8 or 9000l.: an expence which, added to a wasteful mode of living and the practice of gambling, soon brought a number of them to ruin, and obliged them to seek shelter from their creditors by flying to St. Lucia.

> ' The unceremonious departure of these gentlemen, with their negroes, led to the enactment of a law in Grenada, prohibiting any person from quitting the island without the permission of government: but it was in vain to attempt to repress this practice. One planter, having invited his creditors to a splendid entertainment, under the pretext of settling his affairs, embraced the opportunity offered by the inebriation of his guests to embark with his negroes, his servants, and every person belonging to the house; and he had been at sea above an hour with a fair wind, before any of his credulous friends suspected the trick, or were able to make a search through the house, where they found only an old negro, who was too infirm to accompany his master. Some days afterward, a petty coffee-planter embarking with forty slaves in the night was stopped by two constables, but succeeded in getting off, with his swarthy attendants, by main force. The repetition of such evasions made the English creditors alter their plan; so that, on the slightest suspicion, the debtors were obliged to give security, or to go to prison, or to remain cooped up at home. It was amusing to see, in the town of St. George, a number of debtors leave their homes exactly at sun-set, and walk together without apprehension, during any part

of the night; taking, however, the precaution to get within-doors at sun-rise, and to keep close quarters at home on every day of the week except Sunday, when they were allowed to go abroad. Such was the law in those days; and a fraudulent debtor might thus bid defiance to his creditors, and live at his ease as long as he was not touched on the shoulder by a constable while the sun was above the horizon.'

In addition to the notices of Martinique, St. Lucia, and Grenada, M. Le B. communicates a variety of observations on other islands, viz. St. Vincent, Cariuacou, and the groupe called the Grenadines. Our other duties, however, do not permit us to dwell longer on his insular progress; and it is time to take some notice of the circumstances attending his travels on the continent of Spanish America. After having acquired some property in Grenada, he removed, in 1772, to Trinidad; where he formed a plantation as a place of retreat under any circumstances that might occur. He also obtained permission to travel with passports all over the continent of Spanish America, and with that view he studied the Spanish language. After these preparations, he began his travels on the main-land, and proceeded to Angostura, now called St. Thomas, the new capital of Spanish Guiana. The speculation which led him thither was not successful, but the expedition was of use in supplying him with curious facts regarding the lake of Parima, and the much-vaunted region El Dorado, the object of so many exaggerations, but which in reality is not destitute of gold mines. From that quarter he continued to sail up the Oroonoko, through immense meadows, all the way to Varinas; and, having achieved the narrow and dangerous passage of Los Callejones, he proceeded, through the long chain of the Cordilleras, which extend from the province of Merida, by the towns of Grita, Pamplona, Santa Fé de Bogota, Popayan, &c. to the province of Guayaquil, situated along the Pacific ocean. He visited likewise the coast stretching from the country of Platina, (le Choco,) beyond Lima, the capital of Peru.

A thousand obstacles oppose the progress of the traveller in these immense regions. In the plains, he finds roads rendered impracticable by rain; and, in ascending mountains, the fall of a rock or of a tree is sufficient to obstruct the path, and to oblige him to retrace his steps. He is under the necessity of providing himself with tents for his rest at night; being often obliged to proceed for several days together without finding inns, dwellings, or any thing except the *tambos*, or miserable receptacles which are provided by government in the Andes of Peru. Exposed to the attacks of the wild Indians, whom the Spaniards have not yet subjected, he has need of all his courage to traverse sandy deserts, where his mules are liable to perish by hunger or thirst. He must take the resolution of crossing large rivers at the hazard of drowning, if the animal should fail on which he rides; and he is often obliged to pass dangerous torrents, holding fast by ropes which stretch from one bank to the other. The only compensation for so many inconveniences and dangers consists in the interest of the adventures to which they give rise, and the delight afforded by the magnificent scenery of the Cordilleras; which present on one side volcanoes smoking in a region of snow, and, on another, enormous rocks which appear to lose themselves in the immensity of space.

'My plan,' says M. Le B., 'was to make some stay in all the principal towns which I visited; and the exercise of the medical profession opened to me the doors of a number of houses. The society into which I was received, and the curious anecdotes which I consequently learned, gave me an ample field of information regarding the manners of the Spanish Americans, whose character is marked by conspicuous distinctions, arising from the influence of the different climates which they inhabit. — As to the savages of America, I endeavoured to study them in the double relation of their political and their moral conduct. So long ago as 1785, I read to the French Academy of Sciences some memoirs containing the general result of my travels; and the *Journal de Physique* of that year inserted an essay on the natural history of the country around Santa Fé de Bogota, the capital of the New Kingdom of Grenada. Among other matters, it noticed that the temperature of that elevated region prevents the multiplication of most of the animals and plants of the torrid zone; while the animals, the culinary plants, the grain, and the fruit-trees of Europe, brought thither by the Spaniards, prosper as in their natural climate; and the sight of wheat, barley, and potatoes, brings forcibly to the European traveller the recollection of his native land. The children of the Spaniards and Mulattoes bear, in this country, a considerable resemblance in point of complexion to the natives of a cold climate. These observations were at that time new, and wore the aspect of exaggeration; but the concurring reports of subsequent travellers have completely confirmed them.

'Among the physical topics of chief importance discussed in my work, are the two following:

'(1.) Why are the plains in the West Indies and South America generally more extensive towards the east than towards the west, and why has the sea less depth on its eastern shore?

'(2.) How does it happen that the western coasts in those regions are generally covered by steep chains of primitive mountains, of which the vertical divisions every where display naked rocks of considerable height; while their bases are lost in the depth of the ocean; and their masses, separated from each other by greater or smaller spaces, present bays, inlets, and harbours, where the sea is in general deep and tranquil?'

Such are the topics which M. Le B. promises to discuss in his ensuing volumes. He engages also to furnish observations respecting the Indians of French Guiana, in whose neighbourhood he passed the long period of eighteen years. This protracted stay took place on his proceeding a second time to the West Indies, after the year 1785, when he bore a kind of official character, being commissioned by the French government to make researches with the view of procuring increased supplies of Peruvian bark. He had so successfully cultivated the confidence of the Indians, that a tribe of them, conscious of their weakness and ignorance, made application through him for missionaries to instruct them; a request with which it would have been of great importance to have complied. For this purpose, two of the chiefs of their nation followed him to Cayenne, with twenty-eight of their vassals: but, unluckily, the Revolution had broken out in France, and he received orders to discontinue his labours. He thinks that the discovery of supplies of bark, in the high mountains to the west, would have enabled the Indians to indemnify his government for any pecuniary advances which they might have wanted; and the attempt to introduce among them the comforts of civilized society would have succeeded, if it had been managed with a proper knowlege of their disposition.

We shall take an opportunity of reporting the subsequent publications of M. Le Blond, when they reach us.

Art. V. *Fuite de Bonaparte;* &c. *i. e. Bonaparte's* Flight from Egypt; a Collection of authentic Documents respecting his Desertion of the Army, and the Condition in which he left it, without Money, Provisions, Arms, or Ammunition; together with his Letters addressed to the Grand Vizier, and intercepted by the British Corvette El Vincejo. 8vo. pp. 86. Paris. 1814.

At a time when encouragement is given to bring forwards every latent document of *Bonaparte's* misconduct, it might be expected that his abandonment of the Egyptian army would be laid before the eyes of the public in France; where, from the uninterrupted controul exercised by him ever since his arrival, a great degree of ignorance has existed with regard to this part of his history. At Paris, he ascribed this return, with his usual artifice, to sollicitude for the welfare of France; in Egypt, he caused it to be published that he went home to procure relief for the army. These professions, however unlikely

likely to impose on men of discernment, have actually obtained currency for many years among our Gallic neighbours, by whom the declarations sanctioned by the ruling power are generally received with blind confidence.

It was curious to remark, before the return of *Bonaparte* from Egypt, the diversity of feeling among Frenchmen at different times concerning the extraordinary expedition to that country. On the news of his escape from the English fleet, and his successful landing at Alexandria, the contest lay in the inquiry to whom the public was chiefly indebted for a plan apparently replete with so much benefit to France, and so much injury to her sworn enemy, England. On this as on other occasions, *Barras* claimed the merit of having brought forwards the invincible commander ; while many other shinted significantly at their having borne a greater share in the plan than the public supposed. The news, however, of the battle of the Nile, and the subsequent account of the memorable siege of Acre, produced a total revolution of opinion ; and nobody could afterward explain how the notion of so strange an expedition had first been conceived. The only official ray of light given to the world on this topic is contained in the memorial of *Merlin*, formerly member of the Directory. "It is a fact," says *Merlin*, (p. 20.) "that *Bonaparte* himself composed the minutes of all the orders, instructions, and decrees which were issued on this subject by the Directory ; and, if it were not he who first conceived the plan of the expedition to Egypt, it may at least be safely asserted that without him it would have gone no farther than a mere project."

Among the different letters contained in the present collection, that of M. *Poussielgue*, comptroller of the finances in Egypt, to the Directory, is one of the most clear and circumstantial :

"Cairo, 1 Vendemiaire (23d September) 1799.

"I have exclusively had the charge, since the arrival of the army in Egypt, of the finances and other branches of public œconomy in this country ; and, on the departure of General *Bonaparte*, I feel it incumbent on me, in the critical position in which he leaves us, to transmit to you a short but faithful sketch of the observations which I have made, and the opinions arising from them.

"Travellers, and even the official agents of the French government, who have been in Egypt, have concurred in giving such exaggerated views of its fertility, as well as of the treasures contained in the country, that a residence of fifteen months, and the investigations of many well-informed men, have scarcely sufficed to efface this false impression. The ordinary revenue was computed by these persons at 2,000,000l. sterling, and some have calculated it at even 2,500,000l. Now the fact is that, even in time of peace, it does not exceed 800,000l. ; and it would require an extensive and well-protected trade to extend it to 850,000l. In a time of war, which has been the case since our arrival, the revenue cannot exceed 500,000l. or 550,000l. sterling.

"An abundant season in Egypt depends, first, on the waters of the Nile rising to a certain height, and next on these waters being properly distributed. Every year, the canals should be cleaned out, the dykes repaired, and care taken that none of them be cut either earlier or later than the general interest requires. Even in seasons in which the Nile rises favourably, considerable proportions of land remain uncultivated from a want of method in the manner of opening the dykes: but, when the Nile is deficient, the injury is tenfold, because, all the villages apprehending a want of water, those who are nearest the Nile are impatient to open the dykes too soon, which occasions opposition from the more distant villages, and the loss of a considerable portion of the precious waters: — but, however abundant a crop may be, it cannot, under the present system, increase the public revenue, though the government owns two-thirds of the land in Egypt. — The financial administration of this country is entirely feudal; the peasant cultivating the ground on his own account, paying a stipulated amount, in kind or in money, to the proprietor. These rents or payments are of three descriptions: 1st, the *Miri*, or tax to the Turkish government, which is computed at 125,000l. sterling. 2d, a payment called *fais*, being a cess due originally to the proprietor of the ground, and amounting, on all the cultivated property in Egypt, (including the government-lands,) to a like sum of 125,000l. The third kind of payment is more complex, and is termed *borani* or *moudaf*, being composed of a tax or rent in addition to the *fais*, as well as of extraordinary demands made for the passage of troops, local administration, religious establishments, &c. Its amount throughout all Egypt is computed at about 260,000l. To this must be added a sum of 80,000l., arising from dues collected by the provincial governors for their own advantage; so that the whole of the taxes, as paid by the farmers and peasantry of Egypt, form a sum of nearly 600,000l. They pay, indeed, much more, of which no account is rendered by the unprincipled Copts, who act as collectors. — On adding the customs and other indirect taxes, which produce, *in time of peace*, 200,000l., we have a total revenue of 800,000l.

"General *Bonaparte* raised, in a few months after our arrival, about 200,000l. of extraordinary contributions, from the merchants and other inhabitants; and he extracted likewise 50,000l. from private property in land. These resources are now exhausted; no extraordinary contributions can be paid in a country which has remained nearly twenty months without commerce. The money of the Christian inhabitants is gone; to demand a supply from the Turks would occasion a revolt, and would besides be unproductive; their money being buried, and the Turks being still more obstinate than the Christians in allowing themselves to be bastinadoed without mercy rather than discover their treasures. *Some of them have even suffered death rather than make such a disclosure.* The country-people are still more backward in the discharge of taxes than the inhabitants of towns; for they pay only at the last extremity, and by a trifle at a time. Their money is hidden, as well as their other property; and, though they are aware that they must at last fulfil the payment, they often prefer the alternative of resisting until the arrival of an armed force: when they decamp, with their wives, children, and cattle, calling the neighbouring villagers and even the Arabs to their aid, if they have any hope of a successful resistance. They have always men sufficiently on the watch to obtain notice of the approach of our troops.

" Sometimes, we adopt the plan of securing the chiefs of the village, and of detaining or imprisoning them, until payment has been made by their district: but this expedient is slow, and not always successful. If we go so far as to carry off the camels and flocks of the inhabitants, the owners often allow them to be sold, instead of redeeming them by the discharge of the tax; thus exposing themselves to famine by neglecting the cultivation of their ground. During the eight months in which Egypt is not inundated, the Arabs are accustomed to make flying expeditions; and a column of our troops can scarcely march to enforce the payment of a tax, without being obliged to return to punish a revolted district, or to drive off Mamelukes and Arabs.

" The military chest is continually empty; and, for a considerable time to come, we have no prospect of collecting above 10,000l. per month, while our regular expences exceed 50,000l. The Egyptians, notwithstanding their frequent insurrections against us, are a mild people: but they have a fund of dissimulation, as well as a strong dislike to us, though they have received much better treatment from us than a conquered nation usually experiences. The difference of manners, of language, and above all of religion, invincibly opposes a sincere attachment to the French. The natives detest the government of the Mamelukes, and dread the Turkish yoke, but they will never submit to ours, except in the hope of throwing it off. They will only give us the preference to other nations in Christendom. We had 31,000 men under arms and in good health on our arrival in Egypt; they are now reduced below two thirds of that number; and, in consequence of the sickness of many of the remainder, we have not above 11,000 in an effective state. If the Grand Vizier makes an attack on us, we cannot collect above 5 or 6000 men on any point to meet him. We have not a soldier or an officer who does not long to return to France; persuaded, as they all are, that here they are making, without any advantage to their country, a sacrifice of health or of life.

" The army saw with great pleasure General *Kleber* in possession of the command on the departure of *Bonaparte;* no one could have inspired more esteem and confidence: but he is full of honour and pride; and the more difficult is the task imposed on him, the more will he be averse to listen to sentiments which are excited by the course of circumstances, but which in the sequel might be exposed to the charge of timidity. I, who have not the same responsibility, find no difficulty in laying the truth before you, Citizen-Directors; and, had as my description is, you would find it greatly increased if the compass of a letter permitted me to enter into full details.

" No doubt, if we were the confirmed masters of Egypt, we should, in the course of a few years, remove its two great scourges, the plague and the Arabs, and should succeed in giving new life to agriculture and commerce: but Egypt is bordered by two seas and deserts; and a powerful marine is necessary to command access to these seas, and to turn to account the various commercial advantages which they offer. At the time of undertaking this expedition, we were at peace with the Continent of Europe, and possessed a remnant of a navy in the Mediterranean. In the hope of obtaining at least the tacit acquiescence of the Turkish government, we were justified in expecting that we should accomplish our object with regard to England; an object which, in my opinion, as in that of others, was to force that country to a peace favourable for France by causing her to tremble for her East India possessions, and by making the evacuation of Egypt a counterpoise to the restoration of the colonies which she had taken from us. The battle of Aboukir, however, overthrew this calculation by destroying our naval force, and cutting off the arrival of those reinforcements which were intended for us: while it gave our enemies the means of influencing the Porte to declare war against us, opened the Mediterranean to the Russians, put an end to the scheme of disquieting the English on the score of India, and, finally, rekindled the ill-extinguished war with Austria. We can no longer hope that the English, in a negociation for peace, will allow any equivalent for our evacuating Egypt: but, if we treat at present with Turkey, we may, in return for this evacuation, obtain peace both with that empire and with the Barbary states, and have a prospect of renewing our commerce in the Levant. A treaty of this kind might pave the way to peace with England; for I cannot help thinking that the latter power must entertain a secret jealousy of the progress of the Russians, which appears to me more dangerous to her than our continental ascendancy.

" It is a favourite notion among politicians that the Turkish empire is about to fall to pieces, and that Egypt ought to be the portion of France: but this fall is far from certain, when we consider what disputes and contests it would occasion among the great powers of Europe,—among those even who may be considered as inclined to co-operate for the attainment of the object; and when we take into the account that it would be permanently the interest of France, of England, of Prussia, and perhaps of Austria, to oppose it. *France is so fine a country, and so well peopled, that we can gain very little by convulsing Europe;* while, on the other hand, this convulsion would have the effect of creating a new preponderating power, (Russia,) which would reap all the harvest of political advantage on the side of Turkey."

All the letters concur in describing the situation of the French army as deplorable, and in expressing an ardent desire for the evacuation of the country. The inherent difficulties of Egyptian warfare to European troops were in themselves sufficiently serious,

t they were extremely aggravated by the improvidence
itary.

ever" says M. *Le Roc*, the director of the marine, " may
of the military operations, it appears to me of the last
that the French government should appoint a commissary
wers to perform the duty formerly discharged by our am-
Turkey, and above all to heal the wounds of our trade in
. Functions of this nature should be confined to an experi-
ial governor, who is accustomed to repair the evils which
erations inflict on maritime commerce. It will be of the ut-
nt to specify with precision the distinguishing line between
of different officers. The ardour of a mere military man
ted to pay attention to remote considerations; it sacrifices
wants of the instant. This character applies both
er and the inferior officers; none of whom are sufficiently
greatly an observance of law and order conduces to the pro-
important advantages. They are apt to gratify their
iews, and to occasion, without intending it, irreparable

me of *Kleber* deserves to be handed down to posterity,
the most distinguished in the annals of the military
consequent on the French revolution. We took oc-
a former article, to pay a tribute of acknowlegement
inent qualities of this officer; and all that appears in
efore us is calculated to confirm that favourable impres-
the official letters written to the Directory, he discovers
se and disappointment at the evasion of *Bonaparte*, but
ws the vexatious circumstances of his situation to
beyond the limit of temperate and well-founded
sion:

" Cairo, 26th October, 1799.

al *Bonaparte* set sail for France on the 24th August, with-
ing any person, and after having appointed me to meet him
on the 25th. On arriving, I found only his dispatches.—
, Citizen-Directors, what was the state of the army at the
arrival in Egypt; it is now reduced to half; while the want
d ammunition presents a most afflicting prospect. Our at-
establish founderies have not succeeded; the troops are
clothed; and their wants in this respect are a great cause
ning complaints, dysentery and ophthalmia. The former,
r, has been very dreadful during this year, with men whose
e weakened by fatigue; and our medical men report that,
nding the great reduction of our force, the number of sick
eater now than at the same season of the last year. *Bona-*
true, issued an official order at his departure that the army
newly clothed: but, in this as in many other instances, he
rther than an empty declaration. He left not a shilling
ary chest; nor any resources for raising funds: but he left
nearly half a million sterling, which is much more than the

revenue of a whole year under present circumstances. The balance of pay due to the army amounts alone to 180,000l. sterling."

Having enumerated the difficulties of his situation from the discontent of the inhabitants, the continued hostility of the Mamelukes, the approach of a Turkish army of 30,000 men, and the entrance of the English into the Red Sea, *Kleber* thus continues:

"Such is the situation in which General *Bonaparte* has left to me the enormous burden of the command of this army. *He saw the fatal crisis approach;* that he did so, his letters, his instructions, and the negociation commenced with Turkey, all concur to prove:—in short, it is a matter of notoriety, and the enemy seems as well aware of it as ourselves. He deceived himself greatly in his calculation of the effects of his late success against the Turks who landed at Aboukir: for, though he destroyed almost the whole of the 9000 men who had disembarked, of what consequence was this loss to a great nation incensed against us by the capture of her finest province, and by the strongest feelings of interest and religion? Accordingly, this partial success has had no effect in retarding either the preparations or the march of the Vizier."

After these representations of the real state of affairs in Egypt, we are naturally anxious to know the colour which *Bonaparte* chose to give to them, as well as to his own conduct in forsaking his army. The general order left to be issued on his departure was as follows:

"The intelligence from Europe has determined me to set out for France; and I leave the command of the troops to General *Kleber*. The army shall soon hear from me, and I can say no more. I am concerned to quit soldiers to whom I am so much attached: but it shall be only for a short time, and the General whom I leave you possesses both my confidence and that of the government."

This is followed by a letter of instructions to *Kleber*, from which we make a few extracts:

"Alexandria, 23d August, 1799.

"You will find annexed, Citizen-General, an order to take the command of the army. The dread of the re-appearance of the English fleet makes me accelerate my departure by two or three days.

"You will receive herewith English and Frankfort newspapers down to the 10th June; and you will see by them that we have lost Italy: that Mantua, Turin, and Tortona are blockaded. I have reason to hope that the first of these towns will hold out till the end of November; and I flatter myself, if fortune be favourable to me, that I may arrive in Europe before the beginning of October. If, in consequence of events beyond our means of calculation, all our efforts to send relief to Egypt prove unsuccessful, and if by the month of May you have received neither reinforcements nor intelligence from France; if, in addition, the plague should, in spite of all our precautions, find its way this year into Egypt, and carry off more than 1500 soldiers, (a loss of considerable amount, inasmuch as it would be in addition to the daily decrease resulting from military operations;) I am of opinion that, in such a situation, you ought not to hazard another campaign, and that you will be authorized to make peace with Turkey, even if the evacuation of Egypt were the principal condition of it. All that would be incumbent on you would be to postpone, if practicable, the execution of such a condition until the conclusion of a general peace. The good or the bad news which you may receive respecting French affairs in Europe ought greatly to influence your calculations. If the Turkish government return an answer to the pacific overture which I have made, before you hear from me in France, you will declare that you possess all the power which I held; begin the negociation, and persist constantly in the assertion which I have advanced, that France never intended to wrest Egypt from Turkey. Demand that Turkey shall withdraw from the Coalition, open to us the commerce of the Black Sea, and release all French prisoners; in short, that a suspension of hostilities shall take place during six months, in order that the exchange of the ratifications may be made in the interval.

"With respect to fortifications, Alexandria and El-Arish are the keys of Egypt. Citizen *Poussielgue* has had exclusively the charge of the finances, and I have found him a man of application and ability. He begins to see daylight through the dark administration of these affairs in this country. I intended, if possible, to make an effort in this winter to establish a new plan of taxation, with the view of managing without the Copts: but, should you think of undertaking it, I advise you to exercise much previous reflection, since it would be better to be too late than too soon with this operation. Undoubtedly, in the course of the winter, some French ships of war will be at Alexandria, at Burlos, or at Damietta. Build a battery and a tower at Burlos. *Endeavour to assemble 5 or 600 Mamelukes, whom, on the arrival of the French vessels, you could contrive to get arrested, all in one day, at Cairo, or in the other provinces, and embark them for France. If you cannot get hold of Mamelukes, hostages from among the Arabs or the Sheiks in El-Belled, whom you could arrest on some pretence, might be made to answer the purpose.* These individuals, arriving in France, would be kept there for a year or two, would see the greatness of the nation, would acquire an idea of our manners and language, and, on returning to Egypt, would be so many partizans of our cause.

"I have applied repeatedly to the French government for a company of players, and shall make a point of sending them out to you. This accommodation is of great importance, both as an amusement to our own army, and as a method of changing the manners of the country."

In the letter of *Kleber* to the Directory, particular notice is taken of the passage in which *Bonaparte* adverted to the possible loss of 1500 men by the plague:

"I have

"I have brought this passage, Citizen-Directors," under your view, because it is characteristic in more points than one, and shews very clearly the reality of my situation. — Of what importance can 1500 men, more or less, be in the immense extent of country which I have to defend, and the actions which we have daily to sustain? "Alexandria and El-Arish are the two keys of Egypt!" El-Arish is a wretched fort, four days' journey in the desert; and the great difficulty of provisioning it prevents us from keeping in it a garrison of more than 250 men. Six hundred Mamelukes and Arabs may, whenever they chuse, interrupt its communication with Catieh; and, on the departure of *Bonaparte*, this garrison had provisions only for a fortnight. — Alexandria is not a fortress, but a vast intrenched camp; it was, in truth, sufficiently well defended by a large train of besieging artillery, but, since we have lost that artillery in the disastrous campaign of Syria, and since *Bonaparte* has withdrawn all the ship-cannon to complete the equipment of the two frigates with which he has taken his departure, this camp could make only a feeble resistance."

It is interesting, after these documents, to observe the light in which *Bonaparte* represented the situation of his army to the Turkish government, in the pacific overture which he addressed to them:

"Head Quarters, Cairo, 18th August, 1799.

"*Bonaparte, General in Chief, to the Grand Vizier, great among the great, enlightened, and wise; sole depository of the confidence of the greatest of Sultans.*

"I have the honour to write to your Excellency by the Effendi who was made prisoner at Aboukir, and whom I now send back to apprize you of the true situation of Egypt; as well as to commence negociations between the Sublime Porte and the French republic, with the view of putting an end to a war which is pernicious to both States. By what fatality is it, that Turkey and France, who have been on a friendly footing in all ages, (France the enemy of Russia and of Austria; Turkey, the enemy of Russia and of Austria,) happen to be at war with each other? How can your Excellency fail to be aware that every Frenchman who is killed is a friend lost to Turkey! Your Excellency cannot be ignorant that Russia is the true enemy of Islamism. The Emperor Paul has made himself grand master of Malta; that is, he has taken a vow to make war on Mussulmans. Is not he the head of the Greek church; that is, of the most numerous enemies of the Mohammedan faith? France, on the contrary, has destroyed the knights of Malta, burst the chains of the Turks who were there in captivity, and believes, agreeably to the tenets of the Mohammedan faith, that there is but one God. The Turkish government, therefore, after having remained the ally of France as long *as the latter continued a Christian power*, has made war on France from the moment that she *approximated her religion to the Mohammedan faith*. Russia and England have deceived the Sublime Porte. They intercepted the couriers through whom we gave you notice of the expedition to Egypt, and represented this expedition as the beginning of the invasion of the Turkish empire; — as if I had not always declared that the object of the French republic was to destroy the Mamelukes, and not to make war on the Sublime Porte, — to injure the interests of the English, and not of our great and faithful ally, the Emperor Selim. The Sublime Porte declared war in January against France with unexampled precipitation, without waiting the arrival of our ambassador *Descorches*, who had already left Paris for Constantinople; — without asking any explanation from me, or replying to any of the advances which I had made.

"My army is strong, perfectly disciplined, and *provided with all that is necessary to make it victorious over other armies, were they numerous as the sands of the ocean.* Citadels and strong places, bristled with cannon, have been raised along the coast, and along the frontiers on the side of the desert; *I thus fear nothing; I am invincible:* but I owe to humanity, to true policy, and to the most antient and most faithful of allies, the Emperor Selim, the measure which I now embrace. What the Porte could never attain by force of arms, she may attain by negociation. I will overwhelm every army that attempts the invasion of Egypt, but I will reply in a conciliating manner to all the overtures of negociation that you may make to me. From the moment in which Turkey ceases to act in concert with our enemies, Russia and Austria, France will do all that depends on her to restore good intelligence, or to remove whatever might cause disunion between the two states. You wish to have Egypt, we are told; it never was the intention of France to deprive you of it. Invest your minister at Paris with full power, or send one similarly authorized into Egypt, and the whole may be settled in a couple of hours. As for me, I shall account it the happiest day of my life, when I shall be enabled to terminate a war which is both impolitic and without an object."

It appears by a letter from General *Damas*, chief of the Staff, dated 12th October 1799, that the effective force of the French army had amounted on the 23d September 1798 to 33,000 men: but, at the date in question, it was reduced to — effective, 16,000; unfit for active service, 4,000; wholly disabled, 2,000.

The list of the officers whom *Bonaparte* brought with him to France is of some importance, as it indicates the men on whom he thought he could place complete dependence for the prosecution of his designs at home; and the reader will here find several of his subsequent dignitaries under more humble titles:

Beauharnois
La Valette
Duroc
Merlin
} *Aides de-camp.*
Fauvelet Boursienne, Sécrétaire.
Berthier, Général de division.
L'Huilier, Aide-de-camp.

Andreossy
Lannes
Murat
Marmont
} *Générauxdebrigade.*
Montesney, Aide-de-camp.
Bessières, Chef de brigade des guides.

The above extracts contain nearly all that is interesting in this collection; the contents of which have long been known, in substance, to the British public, in consequence of the interception of the dispatches forwarded by General *Kleber* to the Directory in the latter part of 1799.

ART. VI. *Histoire du 18me Brumaire*, &c.; *i. e.* History of the 18th Brumaire, and of *Bonaparte*, by M. GALLAIS, Author of the "18th Fructidor," and of the "Appeal to Posterity." 8vo. pp. 172. Paris. 1814.

THIS writer divides his subject, with great appearance of method, into nineteen chapters, which treat respectively of the state of parties previously to the return of *Bonaparte* from Egypt; of his early exploits in Italy; of the manner of accomplishing the revolution of the 18th Brumaire; and finally of the succeeding events. Few topics promise greater interest, particularly at a time when it might reasonably be supposed that some of the secret springs of these singular occurrences would be unveiled: but the author of this tract seems to go no farther than news-papers and magazines, in quest of documents. Nothing can be more barren than the account, as he terms it, of the early years of *Bonaparte*; and, if the observations on the state of parties be somewhat less uninteresting, they must be allowed to bear very slender marks of information and discrimination. Those of our countrymen, who expected to find the principles of liberty influence the writers, the military men, or the civil functionaries of France, have been, in general, woefully disappointed on obtaining an intimate acquaintance with those individuals. The truth is that, among the busy actors on the revolutionary scene, liberty was a mere rallying-word, and the real object of ambition was the attainment of government-offices. *Rewbell*, the well-known Director, acknowleged that the Revolution answered chiefly the purpose of "raising what was low, and bringing down what was exalted:" while a more concise and sarcastic writer declared it to consist in acquiring the means of telling your neighbour, "*Ote-toi de là, que je m'y mette.*" "Get thee out of place that I may get in."

We have been unable to discover any thing new or striking in this account of the events of the 18th Brumaire, which in truth was nothing else than the overthrow of a disjointed government by an artful man at the head of 10,000 soldiers. The Directory, like the council of five hundred, had no force to oppose to the bayonets; and the people, disappointed by ten years of unavailing change, saw the whole transaction with complete indifference. The talent of *Bonaparte* was displayed, not in the management of the events of that day, but in the skill with which he adapted his falsehoods to each faction in succession, so as to persuade them all of his friendship, and eventually to absorb the whole power in himself.—After the recent political overthrow, it is amusing to look back to the extravagant compliments which were lavished by the different public bodies who came forwards to *Bonaparte* with their addresses, on his accession to the consular power; and an extract from them will serve to conclude our notice of this tract:

"The genius of France was extinct, and you have created it anew." *Department des Landes.*

"In the flower of age, you have dried up all the sources of glory." *City of Tours.*

"You have reduced the genius of language to an inability to express, with adequate dignity, the magnitude and immensity of your services." *Department of Calais.*

"Your glory surpasses that of all the heroes of antiquity; *it has cost no tears.*" *Department des Deux Sevres.*

"Perhaps in this address a portion of eulogium is offensive to your soul, which, indulgent in all other respects, is severe in this alone. Heaven has decreed that no man shall possess all kinds of courage; and it has refused to you the power of supporting praise." *President of the National Institute.*

"Why are you not immortal in a physical, as you already are in a moral sense?" *Department de Golo.*

ART. VII. *De l'Assassinat, &c. i. e.* On the Assassination of the Duke *d'Enghien*, and on the attempted Justification of M. *de Caulincourt.* 8vo. pp. 50. Printed at Orleans, and sold at Paris. 1814.

WE find rather more matter in this than in many French pamphlets of the present day; and, if the writer tells us nothing very striking, he leaves us at least in no doubt as to his meaning. He commences by an argument apparently unconnected with his subject, and little to be expected from a Bourbonnite; we mean on the liberty of the press, which has not, he insists, been sufficiently established by the late constitution. Much attention has been excited in France by the discussions on this most important topic, since the re-establishment of the legitimate monarchy: but, when we perceive a party-writer calling so loudly for it, it is not unfair to suspect that he means the liberty of abusing his political opponents; and a tolerably good proof of this is afforded by the sarcastic manner in which the present author quotes the accusations that were urged in the beginning of April against the Senate, for servile adulation of the man whom they have so lately held up to the abhorrence of the French nation. — On coming to the more immediate subject of his pamphlet, the writer cites the documents inserted in the news-papers by M. *de Caulincourt*, and opposes to them several other letters, one of which bears the signature of *Talleyrand*. It is addressed to the minister of the court of Baden resident at Carlsruhe, the capital of the Electorate, and is in these terms :

" Paris, 11th March, 1804.

" I had transmitted you a letter requiring the arrest of the committee of French emigrants residing at Offenburgh, when the First Consul, by the successive arrest of the brigands sent into France by the English government, as well as by the progress of the judicial inquiries instituted here, arrived at the knowlege of all the share which was taken by the English agents at Offenburgh in the frightful plots contrived against his person and the security of France. He has received information, likewise, that the Duke *d'Enghien* and General *Dumouriez* are at Ettenheim ; and, as they cannot be there without leave of the Elector, the First Consul has been greatly concerned to see that a prince, to whom he had shewn so much friendship, has given an asylum to his most cruel enemies, and allowed them at their ease to contrive conspiracies of so unexampled a character.

" On so extraordinary an occasion, the First Consul has deemed it proper to order two small detachments to proceed to Offenburgh and Ettenheim, for the purpose of seizing the instigators of a crime which, by its nature, excludes from the protection of the law of nations all who have taken a share in it. *General Caulincourt is charged with the orders of the First Consul in this respect.* Be assured that, in executing them, he will make a point of observing all that attention and respect which his Highness would desire, and he will have the honour of conveying to you the letter which I am ordered to write to him."

M. *de Caulincourt* pleads, in his defence lately published in the news-papers, that his mission related to two objects; one, the departure of the flotilla constructing at Strasburgh, to be sent down the Rhine to Antwerp for the invasion of England ; the other, the discovery of the secret intelligence which Mr. Drake, the English minister at Stutgard, was endeavouring to keep up at Offenburgh and in France, for the purpose of exciting troubles. In support of these allegations, he inserts the official order of the war-minister, *Berthier*, dated Paris, 21st Ventose (10th March), 1814, which directs him to " obtain information from the prefect at Strasburgh, and from citizen *Mehée*, for the purpose of arresting the agents of the English government at Weissemburgh and Offenburgh, particularly the Baroness of *Reich*, if her arrest has not already taken place."

"It was General *Ordener*, (says M. *de Caulincourt*) who conducted the arrest of the Duke *d'Enghien* at Ettenheim, and brought him to the citadel of Strasburgh. This officer left Paris the day before M. *de Caulincourt*, who had no orders to bring him, for they had been given to *Ordener* before his (C.s) departure. The mission of General *Ordener* was not of a nature to be communicated to several persons; and, had be been placed under the direction of any other, it would not have been under that of an officer younger than himself, and less in the confidence of the First Consul. It is due to the memory of this General to mention that, if in this unfortunate occurrence he considered obedience as the duty of a soldier, he often declared that he was far from foreseeing the sad result of his mission; and the melancholy produced in consequence was perhaps the cause of the aneurism of which he died suddenly at Compeigne."

A farther testimony, adduced by M. *de Caulincourt*, is an acknowlegment on the part of the Emperor of Russia, dated, 4th April 1808, that he was "satisfied that M. *de C.* had no share in the arrest of the Duke." This, it must be allowed, deserves more attention than the allegations of the negociator himself: but the importance, attached to a declaration from the high quarter in question, will be lessened when we consider that it often suits the policy of courts to profess ignorance of circumstances which are but too well known to them. After the decided part taken by Alexander against *Bonaparte*, in consequence of the death of the Duke *d'Enghien*, it promoted the appearance of consistency to believe that the ambassador sent to the court of Russia by *Bonaparte* was a stranger to that detested measure; and to acknowlege, at St. Petersburgh, the innocence of *Caulincourt*, was much less humiliating than to receive with honour the principal actor in a tragedy which had called forth first the remonstrances and soon afterward the armies of Russia. At all events, it is clear that *Caulincourt* was charged with a mission of a similar kind; and his subsequent conduct affords nothing to justify the expectation, that he would have refused to perform that duty which he affects so strongly to lament in the case of General *Ordener*.

The latter part of this pamphlet contains the following narrative:

'The Duke *d'Enghien* had lived during three years at Ettenheim on a property of his own, and was settled there with the consent of *Bonaparte*, who had been apprized of the circumstance by the elector. On the 15th March 1804, at two o'clock in the morning, without any previous notice or application, a detachment of troops dispatched by *Bonaparte*, and directed by *Caulincourt* (who was under great obligations to the family of *Condé*), passed the Rhine, invested the residence of the young Prince, seized him in bed, and conducted him to Strasburgh, where he was confined in the citadel. Early on the 18th, the prisoner was made to proceed to Paris, and, after having travelled night and day, he was brought, at noon on the 20th, to one of the gates of the capital, where a courier was in waiting with an order to proceed along the walls to the castle of Vincennes. The Duke arrived there at five o'clock, and, being exhausted with hunger and fatigue, took a slight repast. Having then thrown himself on a miserable bed in his apartment, he soon fell into a sound sleep. At eleven o'clock, he was called from his repose, and led into a room in the middle pavilion looking towards the wood, where eight officers sat prepared to judge him. The whole proceedings were finished and sentence passed about four o'clock; and, in half an hour afterward, the noble victim suffered death near one of the ditches of the castle.

'Every precaution had been taken to bury this horrid attempt in the obscurity of night, and to make sure of its accomplishment. The suddenness of the seizure, and the haste in travelling, were intended to shake the fortitude which this gallant youth was known to possess and to have displayed during ten years of military service: but the base hope was vain, for he spoke to his judges with the nobleness and simplicity which belonged to his character and his virtues. When asked why he had carried arms against his country, his reply was, "I contended, with my family, for the recovery of the inheritance of my ancestors: but, since the conclusion of the peace, I have laid down my arms, and have acknowleged that there were no longer sovereigns in Europe." The Abbé *Bouvens*, who pronounced in London a funeral oration on the Duke *d'Enghien*, was mistaken when he said that the execution of this horrid sentence had been performed by foreign soldiers. The truth of history calls for a confession that the men who acted on this occasion were *gens d'armes*, and Frenchmen.'

To these particulars, are added several others which we decline to notice, on account of the uncertainty that always attends the rumours of such transactions. It is said, for example, that *Savary* and *Murat* were present at the execution; an arrangement which, however unnecessary, may perhaps have been the case: but we believe that we may contradict with confidence another allegation; viz. that, in the privy-council held ostensibly on this question by *Bonaparte*, *Cambacérès* voted for saving the prince's life. — After having stated (p. 48.) an example of the tyranny of *Bonaparte* towards the partizans of the Bourbon family, this writer continues:

'Such was the treatment to which we were then exposed. Our new governors have different principles and a different conduct; they deserve our approbation, no doubt, but would it not be desirable that they shewed less confidence, and a less complete security? Ought we to see at Paris a *Mehée*, whose name requires no additiona epithet? — a *Montalivet*, who has been surnamed "*Monte au gibet?*" — a *Cortaz*, who bears the stamp of ignominy in his look? — a *Boulay de la Meurthe*, whose atrocious character is written in the page of history?—a *Fievée*, who is iniquity itself?—an *Etienne*, who was the manager of the literary police under *Savary?*—a *Malte-Brun*, a Dane who was banished from his home, and a supporter of the secret policy of that minister? Let us remove from Paris ten or twelve of these dangerous persons, who chuse to shew themselves in public, and the disquietude of the well-intentioned part of the community will be at an end. People ask, with reason, what business they have in the capital, where the course of events must be such as to mortify them extremely? They had no scruple in putting the royalists into obscure prisons; — would it be severity in us to oblige them to pass their time in the country?'

Different opinions are entertained respecting the prudence of the lenient course pursued by the advisers of Louis XVIII.: but those who are satisfied that his power rests on a more solid foundation, than the writer of this pamphlet chuses to acknowlege, will see, in the disposition to overlook and to treat with indifference such obnoxious characters as the above mentioned, a proof of consciousness of strength on the part of the new government.

ART. VIII. *Campagne de Moscow,* &c.; *i. e.* The Campaign of Moscow in 1812; a Work compiled from official Documents, by R. J. DURDENT. 8vo. Pamphlet. Paris. 1814.

To publish a new tract, in addition to the number which have already appeared on the Russian campaign, naturally suggests the idea of a view to catch attention at a moment when compositions adverse to the late usurper are likely to be welcomed in France. The substance of this pamphlet is soon found to confirm this anticipation, and discovers, it must be confessed, a greater desire to attract popularity by declamatory effusion than by the evidence of careful research. The facts are chiefly taken from the news-papers; and the compiler displays little sagacity in examining the secret motives of *Bonaparte*'s measures. For example, the performance of a theatrical piece every evening at Moscow, during the fatal five weeks of his stay in that capital, is attributed to his personal sollicitude for such entertainments; when it is well known that he made use of them merely to fix the volatile minds of the French, and to assume the appearance of gaiety in the midst of alarm and distress.

The eyes of the discerning part of the political world were opened to the impending destruction of the French army, by the 28th bulletin, dated from Smolensko, 11th November; and the losses admitted in that memorable document, howsoever short of the reality, were sufficient to create a most serious impression, on those who were aware what formidable additions it is necessary to make to the statements of these fallacious narratives. A surer and more conclusive ground of calculation was to be found in the inspection of the map, and in a due consideration of the season of the year. Of such reflections, however, the giddy minds of the French people were little capable; and the magnitude of the mischief does not appear to have been suspected until the publication, three weeks afterward, of the 29th bulletin, dated from Molodetchno. Nay, it seems that the French people believed for a while that the loss was confined to the horses, and imagined that the dragoons who perished with cold and hunger in the deserts of Lithuania were marching home, dismounted indeed, but in other respects in good condition. The papers in the pay of government had even the assurance to assert that few pages of antient or modern history could be compared to this memorable bulletin; — that it was a composition of the highest character, and equal to the Anabasis of Xenophon or the Commentaries of Cæsar!

The writer of the sketch before us mentions that a part of his narrative was communicated by an officer who had survived these melancholy scenes; and the passage more immediately indicated to proceed from this authority is thus given:

> ' Until the French troops reached Smolensko on their retreat, some portion of discipline had continued to characterize their conduct; because, though many soldiers forsook their colours and repaired to the flanks, a central point remained on which the members of each regiment were accustomed to rally: — but, after they had left Smolensko, the soldiers, exhausted by continued fatigue, gave over even this partial obedience, threw away their arms, and abandoned the ammunition-waggons. They acted no longer as parts of a great whole, whose strength depends on the union of its component portions, but as detached individuals, obliged to confine their care to their personal safety. The private, who had made his way to the scanty fire of a bivouac, no longer gave place to a starving officer, but was determined to maintain his station if necessary by force. Amid this general disorder, *Bonaparte* proceeded with his guards drawn up in a hollow square, with their muskets loaded, that they might be enabled to repel any attack on the flanks. The remnant of the *chasseurs à cheval* of his guard cleared, or rather attempted to clear, both sides of the way for the march of the troops, and were frequently engaged in skirmishing with the Cossacks.
>
> ' On reaching the town of Orscha, *Bonaparte* declined to receive the deputies of the Polish province of Mohilow, which was perhaps the first time that he retired from the homage of his vassals. The shame of appearing in the character of a fugitive, surrounded by the wreck of an army lately so splendid, was no doubt the motive of his refusal. On arriving at the Beresina, two whole days were occupied in passing the river: but the bridge was so weak and narrow,

that a number of soldiers found a watery grave in their impatience to reach the opposite side. The fresh troops lately arrived were stationed partly on the left to oppose *Tchitchagoff*, and partly on the right to withstand the assault of *Wittgenstein*. The safety of the portion that escaped was owing to the resistance, or rather to the sacrifice, of these corps; and no words can describe the confusion, when the Russians, having at last overthrown these protecting divisions, began to draw near to the bridge. Those who succeeded in crossing the river were destined to fall by cold or hunger in the tedious march to Wilna. An eye witness reported the manner of expiring from cold to be nearly as follows:

'" When the frame began to be affected in a fatal manner, the unhappy victim was obliged to stop short, and his distorted features appeared like those of a man deprived of intellect, and unconscious whether he should yield to a tear or to a convulsive laugh. Aware that he could not longer maintain an upright posture, the hands were mechanically placed before the body, while the knees tottered, and the miserable sufferer, falling with his face on the earth, was soon deprived of motion and life." " I dreaded," said another witness of these calamities, " the return of night, not only as an aggravation of our sufferings, but as giving rise to melancholy alarms from the fate of our comrades. On making a halt, we were accustomed to draw together, and even to press one against the other. In this situation, and through the silence produced by dejection and despair, our ears were often assailed by the recurrence of slight noises, which took place in succession, and occasionally in several places at a time. What was the cause of them?—the fall on the frozen ground of men and of horses, sinking under the excess of cold and hunger. Never shall I forget the impression of this melancholy scene. It continues to haunt my imagination, together with the terrible circumstances that accompanied it; and often, in the midst of night, I start from my slumbers, because my terrified fancy again assails my ears with those melancholy sounds." '

The present writer treats very cursorily the question how far the Russians participated in the dreadful sufferings which destroyed the French army: but, from the nature of the season and the country, as well as from the limited numbers who were found capable of taking a share in the operations in Saxony in the month of May, it is apparent that their loss in the pursuit must have been very considerable. That it was not much greater was no doubt owing to the men and horses being accustomed to the climate, to the friendly disposition of the surrounding peasantry, and, above all, to the difference of situation between a flying and a pursuing force: — not forgetting the important consideration that the fresh corps of *Tchitchagoff* relieved the troops of *Kutusoff* in the midst of the pursuit, and was enabled to accomplish the destruction of the French without any other co-operation than that of the Cossacks; who, from circumstances sufficiently known, are steeled against the inclemency of winter. — With regard to another melancholy calculation, we mean the number who perished on the side of the French, and which is generally computed to have been, from the beginning to the end of the campaign, between 3 and 400,000 men, this pamphlet is as uninstructive as on other topics, on which precision is to be obtained only by a careful research into documents that are not open to ordinary readers.

ART. IX. *Bonaparte peint par lui-même*, &c.; *i. e. Bonaparte* delineated by himself, in his Military and Political Career. By M. C***, *avocat à la cour royale.* 8vo. pp. 554. Paris. 1814.

THE reader who opens this volume in the expectation of finding in it any thing new with regard to *Bonaparte* will be much disappointed, since it falls exactly under the description of the book-selling compilations which are so common in Paris, and consists only of an abstract of the public life of the late ruler of France, taken from the news-papers and government publications. In order to accommodate it to the general feeling, the author has been indefatigable in infusing a large portion of abuse on *Bonaparte* and of encomium on the *Bourbons*: but he has failed in throwing any new light on the secret motives of the policy of the usurper. He divides the volume into three parts; the first treating of the history of Napoleon while he was a General Officer; the second, of his consulship, viz. from November 1799 to May 1804; and the third, of the ten years that have elapsed since he assumed the title of Emperor.

It would have been interesting to have introduced, into a work of this nature, some account of the education and early habits of this singular man: but, as the materials did not offer themselves readily to the compiler, he has been contented to dismiss the subject in a couple of pages, and to enter at once on the life of *Bonaparte* after the 13th Vendemiaire 1795; or, in other words, on that part which may be read in every magazine or newspaper. The campaign of Italy is passed over without any of those observations which indicate a disposition or an ability to analyze the combinations of a commander. The account of the Egyptian expedition is equally superficial, and has scarcely any prominent characterstic, except the introduction (p. 115) of a pretended dialogue between *Bonaparte* and two disciples of Mohammed. We come next to the sudden revolution of 18th Brumaire, which, by an inconsistency that would have surprized any other people than the French, rendered a baffled and fugitive General the absolute master of the government: but here, as in other places, we meet with no attempt to explain the secret manœuvres which were preparatory to so remarkable a change.

The preface conveys a sufficient idea of the views of the writer:

'A man who had risen from a low rank in society placed himself on the throne of our kings, and France groaned during ten years under his iron yoke. His name must reach posterity, because so scandalous an usurpation is without example in our history: but let it be handed down as a repulsive example of the effects of the ambition of one man, seconded by the power of events, and perhaps also by our own weakness.

'*Bonaparte* was the child of the Revolution, and was enabled by means of it to overleap the immense space which separates a subject from a sovereign. The same delirium, which made us proscribe as a tyrant the father of his people, could alone induce us to call to the throne a foreigner, who was impatient to shed our blood. His elevation shewed to Europe that the hand of Providence was stretched out for our punishment: but the iron rod, which the usurper wielded in anger, has been broken like a slender twig. Strange association! Louis XVI. expires, and all is overthrown! *Bonaparte* descends from the throne in full health, and all remains tranquil! The fall of an usurper is a natural event, foreseen only by the sage, but desired by every one, while the slightest infraction on the hereditary right of legitimate sovereigns announces political disorganization, and presages all the misfortunes which are found to arise out of such convulsions. ——

'The dethroned tyrant is now only a man, whose life we have all at present a right to examine. No life ever furnished so many materials for its own history. May it be my lot to succeed in making a proper use of them. The progressive rise of *Bonaparte* is an awful lesson for the nation that is not yet instructed by actual experience; and his fall is a frightful warning to daring innovators, who presume to raise a sacrilegious hand against the institutions which have been consecrated by the wisdom of ages.'

These fluent passages afford a specimen of the dexterity with which French book-makers contrive to introduce their works to the public: but, to whatever part of the volume we turn, whether the campaign in Germany, or the fatal invasion of Russia, we find reason to repeat the charge already made, of mere compilation from the journals of the day. The merit of the work consists in making these abstracts within a moderate compass, and in avoiding unmeaning repetitions. It may accordingly be of some use to those who wish to have beside them a short notice of the dates and circumstances of the leading events of *Bonaparte*'s career, and who are prepared for the absence of research into original documents, as well as on their guard against the partiality of the writer. He represents himself in his preface as having suffered under the usurper's tyranny the loss of his dearest friends, but as still determined to write his life with an unprejudiced pen;—or, to use his own expression,—'like a Frenchman and a friend of truth.' Of this high-sounding declaration we may be permitted to say what the world has often said of *Bonaparte's* speeches; that they less expressed what he really knew, or intended, than what he wished his good natured audience to believe.

Art. X. *Campagne de Paris en* 1814, &c.; *i. e.* The Campaign of Paris in 1814, preceded by a Sketch of that of 1813; or an historical and impartial Account of the Events which occurred between the Invasion of France by the Allies, the Capitulation of Paris, and the Abdication of *Bonaparte;* containing Observations on his Character, and on the Causes of his Rise; compiled from authentic Documents and the Report of Eye-witnesses. With a Map of the Scene of Operations. By P. F. F. I. Giraud. 3rd Edition, containing the Treaty of 11th April between the Allies and *Bonaparte*, respecting the Island of Elba. 8vo. pp. 120. Paris. 1814.

WITHOUT possessing any particular claim to attention on the grounds either of novelty or profundity, this tract is on the whole superior to the mass of pamphlets which issue with so much rapidity from the Parisian presses. It begins with a preliminary view of the exertions of *Bonaparte* to meet the campaign of 1813, and offers a remarkable specimen of the extravagance of the attempts of the late French government to impose on the credulity of the people. 'Men of property (p. 13) were surprized to read in the papers the offer to government of horses with which they did not intend to part; while conscripts, driven along frequently in chains and in carts, were startled to see in print that they had quitted their families with enthusiasm to fly to the defence of their country.' The author then proceeds to give a short abstract of the principal events of the last year's campaign in Germany, and comes subsequently to the invasion of the French territory by the allied powers. Entering now on the proper object of his work, he becomes more circumstantial, and details particular actions, such as the battle of La Rothiere, on 30th January, with considerable clearness. *Bonaparte's* design, he observes, was to overpower *Blucher's* army at Brienne, and his manœuvres were at first successful: but they led only to his proceeding too far, and engaging such a number of the allies as were able to repulse him, even without waiting for the support of all their divisions.

The uncertainty of the public mind in this country, with regard to the expected issue of the operations of this spring-campaign, is still fresh in our recollection, and seems to call for a few observations. That uncertainty was of a two-fold nature; consisting of, first, a distrust of the politics of Austria; and, secondly, a doubt whether, even if she were sincere, the allies would be completely successful. We were always of opinion that the degree of doubt and anxiety was too great, and that the nation did not make the deduction justified by the consideration that the editors of news-papers have an interest in disseminating reports, with a view to keep public sollicitude on the stretch. History has every where shewn us that marriage-connections, such as the one in question, have little effect on political combinations; and it was very clear that, during the autumn of 1813, Austria was the power which had dealt the most deadly blows to *Bonaparte*. If, then, in a political view, little ground of apprehension existed, much less was the issue to be doubted on military calculation. *Bonaparte* had thrown away in the deserts of Russia the efficient parts of that engine, which compressed the European commonwealth; and his remaining portion of disciplined troops, whether stationed in Germany or drawn from Spain, had evidently been sacrificed in the sanguinary conflicts of May, September, and October. Levies in large numbers, indeed, were still decreed to him by the Senate: but they were as little capable of performing the duty of soldiers, as a raw country-labourer is qualified for the business of an artisan. Accordingly, he was unable to bring into the field, in a collective shape, during the present year, above 130,000 men, against the Austrians, Russians, and Prussians, who were superior both in numbers and in discipline. The temporary advantage gained by him in February arose merely from the sudden direction of a mass of force against a particular point. While reading his vapouring bulletins, the public were not told how many thousand lives he lost by fatigue in his forced marches; nor were they called to compare the insignificance of the result with the brilliant consequences of similar movements in the days in which he found himself at the head of an army of veterans. In examining the different actions of the last campaign, we find only two that are intitled to the name of battles; viz. that of La Rothiere already mentioned, and that of Laon on the 9th March. Both were fought between *Bonaparte* and *Blucher*, and in both the superior firmness of a disciplined force was triumphant, without much difficulty, over the furious efforts of the French. It is true that the imprudent project of *Bonaparte*, of placing himself at the end of March in the rear of the Austrians, led to an accelerated decision of the contest: but the result would evidently have been the same in the course of another month, had he committed no such blunder, and had he been supported by all the success that the force under his controul could gain for him.

The ensuing passage is chiefly remarkable as containing the presumptuous language ascribed to *Bonaparte* on obtaining the partial successes of the month of February:

'It is reported that he tore on this occasion the copy of the conditions of peace which had been transmitted to him by his minister at Chatillon, and that he called out, "I am now nearer to Vienna than they are to Paris." It was also said that, on the allies proposing the condition of the antient limits of France, a council convoked by Napoleon was almost unanimous to accept the offer: but he, expecting unbounded sacrifices, was highly irritated, and determined to try once more that fortune which betrayed while she caressed, and which made him lose all by making him think that he had gained all. Her last favours were bestowed on him in the first action at Craone, and some days afterward at Rheims. On the 7th March, the French succeeded at Craone in forcing the enemy, whose positions were advantageous, but too confined to permit the co-operation of all his army, which was not less than 80,000 men. Moreover, notwithstanding the gallantry of our troops and Generals, we failed in various manœuvres, and particularly in our attempt to out-flank the allies. They, on their part, did not attain all their objects, but they lost not a single cannon, and hardly any prisoners. The fire of the artillery was dreadful on both sides, and the loss on each exceeded 6,000 men. Next day, the whole of *Blucher's* army was concentrated before Laon, where he had determined to receive us, and to fight a decisive action. *Bonaparte* commanded an attack, notwithstanding the objections of his officers, and was entirely defeated both on the 9th and the 10th. On the former day, the brunt of the action fell on the left of the enemy, who repulsed us, and took between 40 and 50 cannon. On the 10th, *Bonaparte* renewed the fight, by making his left attack the centre and right of the allies; an attack which was ascribed to a wish to enable Marshal *Marmont* to rally his broken forces. All these efforts were ineffectual, and we retired in disorder. This repulse carried the exasperation of *Bonaparte* to an extravagant height; he aimed at nothing less than raising the whole population, and exciting a war of extermination against the enemy. He represented *Blucher* as stopped at Laon, and as acting without any confirmed plan. A body of 16,000 men under General *St. Priest* having entered Rheims, *Bonaparte* proceeded thither, and was successful against an enemy who ventured to maintain an unequal conflict; he took 22 cannon, and 1,000 prisoners.—Meanwhile, the Austrian army availed itself of the diversion of the French force on the side of *Blucher*, and threatened Paris in the direction of Provins. *Bonaparte* now determined once more to march southward, and reached Arcis-sur-l'Aube early on the 20th March. This movement, we were told at Paris, put the enemy in great uncertainty; and, in fact, they had at first the appearance of retreating: but on the 21st they skirmished in a manner evidently intended to draw us on to close action. *Bonaparte* now marched suddenly in a north-east direction to Vitry, leaving behind a number of wounded. By all these marches, we imagined that his plan was to turn, like the roaring lion, on his enemy, and to beat different corps in detail: but excess of fatigue exhausted his army, which was now recruited with great difficulty, and by new levies driven forcibly to the field of battle, where they often gave way without resistance.

'It is said that he had determined, for the sake of procuring reinforcements, to direct his efforts against the frontiers of Lorraine. Secret agents had been dispatched from Paris, on pretence of travelling on mercantile business, but conveying in the handles of knives, and in other concealed ways, instructions to the garrisons in our different fortresses to march out and endeavour to join the main army. These arrangements, if they were at all serious, were too late; the bearers of such orders not having it in their power to accomplish their mission; and several of them are said to have been hanged as spies in their endeavours to penetrate into the places pointed out to them. Meantime, the news from Bordeaux arrived, and may be considered as forming a prelude to the *denouement* of this tragedy. *Blucher*, having taken Chalons, advanced towards Prince *Schwartzenburg* with a determination no more to separate their forces. The Prince now took a decided course; and, in a proclamation dated 23d March, he announced the approach of the most important events. In fact, *Bonaparte* was now entirely cut off from Paris, and the fall of that capital was no longer doubtful.'

M. GIRAUD takes great pains to argue that the Parisians did all that was practicable in their situation for the defence of the metropolis; and he even goes so far as to say that their resistance would have been much more serious, had arms been delivered to the people, who assembled (p. 83.) in crowds to receive them. This is evidently a mere compliment to the inhabitants of the capital, and intended as a kind of reply to the charge of the French soldiers; who, when obliged to withdraw from Paris, called out that they were betrayed. The population of that city, were it twice as great, would make a sorry figure in opposition to a disciplined force of 200,000 men. — After these details, the writer concludes with a few observations on the character of *Bonaparte*.

'He had throughout so little soundness of judgment, as to believe that falsehood and imposture could lay the foundation of durable results. It was on this vile basis that he raised his Colossus, without ever perceiving that he was building on the sand. Having succeeded in acquiring a reputation, his grand object was to make it a stepping-stone to farther usurpation of power, and to environ himself with an artificial *éclat*, as if he had been the only great man in the state. Accustomed to study deceit on all occasions, he had gained at last the habit of making a mere sport of truth. Although he appeared occasionally to act the part of a clement governor in public decrees, it is likely that he never forgave an injury in his heart; and that the concessions in question were dictated solely by his own interest, or extracted from him by the force of circumstances. All his actions discovered a wanton sacrifice of human lives, and a disposition to see in mankind merely the means of consumption for political purposes. How happened it, we may ask, that France consented to bear, during so many years, the yoke of so unworthy a master? The answer is, that *Bonaparte*, being invited on the 18th Brumaire to execute a plan devised by others, succeeded in deceiving all parties, and in making himself complete master of the stakes. No choice remained for the leading men of the state, but that of submission or a new struggle: — the public was sick of dissention, and the alternative of submission was preferred. *Bonaparte* was enabled to keep all parties in check by making them afraid of each other; and he had in his favour the lassitude which is so natural to a people, after a series of unsuccessful attempts to secure their liberty. This he turned to great account, by means of three qualities inherent in his character, and exercised steadily by him from the beginning; viz. hypocrisy, compulsion, and bribery. His great error, both in war and government, was in not knowing where to stop. *Vastus animus immoderata, incredibilia, nimis alta, semper cupiebat.*'

The edition of this tract in our possession is concluded by a copy of the treaty of 11th April between *Bonaparte* and the monarchs of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. It stipulates the renunciation of all sovereignty by the former, with the exception of the island of Elba; on condition of an annual revenue of 80,000l. sterling, payable out of the French funds, with the reversion of half to his wife, Maria Louisa. For his family-relations, a farther stipulation is made of an annual revenue of somewhat more than 100,000l. sterling; viz.

To his mother	about	£12,000 sterling
Joseph and his wife		20,000
Louis		10,000
His sister Hortensia and her child		16,000
His sister Eliza		12,000
His sister Paulina		12,000
Jerome and his Queen		20,000

The treaty farther directs that all public property in possession of the *Bonaparte* family shall be relinquished, but that all property coming under the denomination of private shall be retained by them: Napoleon to take with him, and to be allowed to keep as a guard, 400 men; on the condition, however, that all Frenchmen who may follow him or his family should be liable to be recalled into the French territory in the space of three years, or otherwise to lose their rights as Frenchmen. — The British minister was not, as is well known, a party in this treaty; nor has our Court, we understand, accounted itself by any means pledged to its observance with regard to the manner of governing the island of Elba.

On the whole, this tract is of a mixed character, containing at times judicious observations, and at others (p. 81.) such as can scarcely be called better than puerile. It is difficult to comprehend the author's views on some questions, such as (p. 35.)

the sincerity of the Chatillon negociation: but, altogether, his pamphlet manifests less partiality and exaggeration than the common run of such publications in France.

ART. XI. *Correspondance Littéraire*, &c.; *i. e.* The Literary, Philosophical, and Critical Correspondence of Baron GRIMM and of DIDEROT with a German Prince.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

THE long examination of *Rousseau*'s Emile, contained in these pages, only says what *Voltaire* tells in a single line: "Do you think," asks Candide, "that men were always as mischievous as they are now?"—"Do you think," replies Martin, "that the kite always preyed on smaller birds?" The elaborate defence of *Voltaire*'s edition of *Corneille* was doubtless amusing when it was written: but the interest has passed away, and the subject of it appears likely to lose the name of *Great*, which was with equal justice bestowed on *J. B. Rousseau*.—The account of *Buffon*'s vast work, in which he was assisted by *Daubenton*, deserves attention. M. *de Buffon*, having explained, in some general discourses, his ideas on the formation and constitution of the universe, on the nature and revolutions of our globe, on man, and on other animals, devoted himself to the individual history of every species, and to this M. *Daubenton* added an anatomical and detailed description of each animal. If *Buffon*'s labours are more brilliant, and more eagerly received by those who are desirous only of general ideas, we cannot deny that the portion of this noble history which was undertaken by *Daubenton* will be a most valuable present to posterity; because, if ever the science of natural philosophy is to advance, it must owe its progress to labours repeated, compared, and transmitted from age to age: if Aristotle and Pliny had each been assisted by a *Daubenton*, natural history would long ago have been disencumbered of its obscurities, and would have been far more advanced.—In noticing the death of M. *le Vayer*, the author of many charming little fugitive pieces, it is here observed that this happy 'talent prevented him from rising in his profession. Pedants,' says M. GRIMM, with a *finesse* worthy of *Voltaire*, 'would wish to establish a rule that no persons who are less stupid than themselves are capable of undertaking serious offices; at least, it is their interest to decry men of understanding.'

From the subsequent anecdote, the reader may form some idea of a good-natured Pope:

'It were to be desired that all the sayings and sallies of Pope Benedict XIV. were collected in a *Lambertiniana*. He was the most infallible of all the successors of the prince of Apostles, because he possessed more wit and pleasantry than all his predecessors put together. This great and amiable Pontiff, noticing the French Ambassador, the Cardinal *de Rochechouart*, who came into his presence one day with a very long face, accosted him thus: — "Well, what is the matter?" "I have just received the news," answered the other with a sigh, "that the archbishop of Paris has been again banished." — "Ah, I suppose it to be again on account of that bull." — "Alas! yes, holy father." — "This recalls to my memory," said his Holiness, "an adventure which took place in the time of my legation to Bologna. Two senators quarrelled about the pre-eminence of Tasso over Ariosto; and the advocate for Ariosto received a tolerably deep wound with a sword, of which he died. I went to visit him in his dying moments. Is it possible, said he, that I am doomed to perish in the flower of my life for Ariosto, whom I never read! and even had I read him, I should not have understood a syllable; for I am but a simpleton."

'When we read these traits, however heretical we may be, we cannot help crying, "*Sancte Benedicte, ora pro nobis.*" The Comte *de Bussey* told us one day, talking of this pope and of the good Mahmoud, who in his time was grand signor: "They are both so good that, if they changed places, and we could make the one grand signor, and the other the pope, no body would perceive it." But, I am of opinion that the seraglio would have discovered the change.'

A curious and entertaining defence of Judaism is undertaken by a Rabbi against the attacks of a Venetian Abbé. "You acknowlege," says the Rabbi, "that in common with yourselves we adore the true God: but his worship costs us nothing. We have no temples, altars, sacrifices, pope, bishops, priests, nor a crowd of idle monks to support, &c. &c. Our dispersion makes us the citizens of the whole world; and a country no sooner displeases us than we pass into another, with a certainty of living among our own tribes. We are more numerous and more rich than when we inhabited the barren tract of Judea under the Davids and Solomons. Our dispersion makes us heirs to the universe. Do we not gather where others have sown? Do not Christians go to the extremity of the world to amass riches, and cut throats for our good?" &c. &c.

The reader will be pleased with the portrait of himself which is drawn by the Chevaleresque Abbé *Boufflers*, and by *Condamine's Pain Mollet*, which was in fact only a *jeu d'esprit* on the opposition experienced by inoculation in France. It is related of *Condamine* that curiosity and research, and an insatiable desire to discover truth wherever it could be found, or whatever difficulties it might impose, formed his ruling passion.

'His inexhaustible curiosity on every subject, joined to a great deafness, frequently makes him tiresome to others; to me, these peculiarities only recommend him the more. This curiosity induced him, some years ago, to attend at the execution of the unhappy *Damiens*. He penetrated through the crowd till he came near the executioner; and there, with his pocket-book and pencil in his hand, at every application of the burning pincers and every stroke of the bar, he asked with a loud voice, "What does he say?" The satellites of Master *Charlot* wished to put him away as a troublesome fellow: but the executioner said to them; "Let him alone, the gentleman is an amateur." Nothing more fully proves the power of the passions; since curiosity alone influenced a man, who was on all other occasions full of sensibility and humanity, to contemplate the most horrible spectacle that can be conceived.

'During his residence in London, M. *de la Condamine* was accustomed to walk about the streets with an umbrella, a trumpet at his ear, a telescope, a pair of compasses, and a map of London in his hands, which he kept always open. His questions were multiplied in proportion to his ignorance of the language. A pleasant adventure happened to him in this city, which induced him to appeal to all nations; and it is said that, on the theatres of London, where the suffrages of the populace are every thing, he was represented in the accoutrements, and with the instruments for gratifying his curiosity, in which he daily appeared in the streets.'

Catherine of Russia is frequently introduced throughout this work, and never appears without honour to her understanding and her heart. The philosopher *Diderot*, after twenty years of literary labour, was reduced to the necessity of selling his library, that he might amass a sufficiency to provide for an only daughter. For five years he had been vainly seeking a purchaser, when Baron GRIMM undertook to make the proposition to the Empress of Russia through the mediation of General *Betzky*, with whom he had formed an intimacy during his residence in France. The answer was couched in these terms:

"The generous protection, Sir, which our august sovereign does not cease to extend to every thing which relates to the sciences, and her particular esteem for the learned, determined me to report to her faithfully the motives which, according to your letter of the 10th of last February, induce M. *Diderot* to part with his library. Her compassionate heart has not been able to learn without emotion that this philosopher, so celebrated in the republic of letters, is reduced to the necessity of sacrificing to paternal tenderness the object of his fondness, the source of his labors, and the companions of his leisure hours. For this reason her Imperial Majesty, to give him a mark of her benevolence, and encourage him to pursue his career, has charged me to make the acquisition of this library at the price of 15,000 livres, the sum which you propose, only on this condition, that M. *Diderot* shall be the depositary of it, for his own use, until it shall please her Majesty to demand it. The orders for the payment of 16,000 livres are already dispatched to Prince *Gallitzin*, her minister at Paris. The surplus of that sum, and an annual gratuity to the same amount, are farther proofs of the liberality of my sovereign for the care and trouble which it will cost him to complete this library. The business, therefore, is accomplished.

"Testify, I intreat you, to M. *Diderot* how much flattered I am in having found an occasion of being useful to him.

"I have the honor to be, &c.

"J. BETZKY."

Another anecdote of the same Empress deserves insertion, because, in addition to her goodness, it is no unfavourable specimen of Imperial wit. M. *Sumarikoff*, a Russian dramatic poet, had quarrelled with the first actress of the theatre at Moscow, and, in the heat of his anger, had declared that this lady should never be permitted to represent any of his characters. The governor of Moscow, with little respect for theatrical disputes, issued an order for the tragedy, and for the actress who was so exceptionable to the Russian bard. The latter, smothering his vengeance, awaited the appearance of the heroine on the stage; when, no longer able to contain himself, he rushed forwards from the side-scene, seized her by the waist, and threw her forcibly on the floor. After this noble exploit, he went home, and addressed two sublime epistles to the Empress, which Catherine had the good-nature thus to answer:

"Monsieur *Sumarikoff*, I have been very much astonished at your letter of the 28th of January, and yet more at that of the 1st of February. Both of them appear to me to contain complaints against *Belmontia*, who has only followed the orders of Count *Soltikoff*. The Field Marshal desired to see your tragedy represented; and this surely was an honor.

"Decorum required of you to conform to the wish of the first person in authority at Moscow; and if he thought proper to order the representation, that order should have been obeyed without any reluctance. You must know better than most persons the respect due to men who have served with glory, and whose heads are covered with grey hairs; for this reason, I counsel you to avoid such disputes for the future. You will thus preserve that tranquillity of mind which is necessary to your works, and it will ever be more agreeable to me to see the passions represented in your dramas than to behold them in your letters.

"In all other respects, I am affectionately yours,

"CATHERINE."

Of Garrick, M. GRIMM writes thus:

'This great and illustrious actor, this Roscius of the English, or rather of the moderns, for great talents have no country, and belong to all who know how to appreciate them, this David Garrick has kept his word with us; he has passed six months with us on his way from Italy, and returned to England three months ago. He would be ungrateful if he were not sorry to quit France, where he has been so well received, but where he confined himself from preference to the society of the philosophers, whose regrets he has taken with him, and whose air, manners, and information he cherishes in turn. I ask pardon of the English, but I have usually observed that they have exaggerated their advantages, and raised their men of moderate talents to a rank above all that is distinguished and illustrious in other nations. This is the first time that I have not been deceived by their encomiums. Garrick is, in truth, above all eulogy, and to form any idea of him he must be seen. He who has not seen Garrick has never seen a drama performed.'—

'It is easy to disfigure a face: this may be conceived: but Garrick neither grimaces nor overcharges his parts; all the changes which affect his features arise from his internal emotions; he never exceeds the truth; and he is possessed of that other inconceivable secret of embellishing himself without any farther aid than that of passion. We have seen him play the dagger-scene in the tragedy of Macbeth in a room, dressed in his usual clothes, without the assistance of any theatrical illusion; and, in proportion as he followed with his eyes the suspended dagger traversing the air, he became so admirable that he forced an exclamation of applause from all the company. Who would imagine that the same man, the instant afterward, could counterfeit with equal perfection a pastry-cook's boy, who, in carrying his little *pâtés* on his head while he is gaping in the streets, lets his tray fall into the kennel, and, after having stood for a minute astonished at the accident, ends with bursting into tears?'—

'In the same perfection, he plays all those parts of which the models are to be found in nature: the only characters that he cannot act are those fictitious beings who resemble nothing, and have no foundation but in the wild and poverty-stricken imagination of a poet. He affirms that to be a good tragic actor it is necessary to be a good comedian, and I believe him to be in the right.'—'He asserts that *Racine*, so beautiful, so enchanting in the closet, cannot be adapted to the stage, because he says every thing, and leaves nothing to the actor. We have ever been of the opinion of *Roscius Garrick* on this point; we who are but a little flock of true believers, who recognize Homer, Æschylus, and Sophocles for the law and the prophets; we who are delighted with the gifts of genius wherever they may be found, without exception of language or of nation:—the English Roscius is of the religion professed by our little flock.'

The essay on Preaching appears at first sight to be founded on a ridiculous and extravagant hypothesis: but we cannot help suspecting its real basis to be truth. The Abbé *Coyer*, who is the author of this essay, endeavours to prove that all those who have undertaken to ameliorate men by their writings are mere idle talkers and gossips, who may amuse but can never correct. The true preacher,—the only one, (according to the Abbé *Coyer*,) who preaches to the purpose, because the only one who joins to the recommendation of morality the force and example of practice and execution,—is the government. Thus, when the government knows how to preach, all goes well; and when it preaches ill, all the sermons of all other preachers put together are mere waste paper.

Among the authors of the day, *Piron* figures frequently and agreeably through this work. After the first representation of Semiramis, *Voltaire*, meeting *Piron* in the green-room, asked his opinion of the play. " You would be extremely happy if I were its author," was the answer.—*Piron* appears to have been the only author who associated with the patriarch without any apprehension of being eclipsed by his wit. We remember an anecdote in proof of this assertion which M. de GRIMM has omitted, and which is far superior to any that he has recorded. *Voltaire* had requested *Piron* to tell him his opinion of a new dramatic piece, on which the patriarch had bestowed great pains, and which he believed to be beyond the reach of any serious objection. Having perused it, " I think," said *Piron*, " it will be hissed." — " I bet you that it will not," replied the patriarch. The wager being accepted, they both were present at the representation; it went off heavily, but did not meet with the compliment denounced by *Piron*.—*Voltaire* called on him for his money. " True," said *Piron*, counting it out to him, " it is impossible to hiss and yawn at the same time." The physical truth contained in this observation heightens the humour of the remark.

Among a number of idle metrical pieces scattered through this publication, a few may be selected that have considerable merit. An old thought on the subject of truth was happily improved by M. *de L'Isle* into the following little apologue:

" *Aux portes de la Sorbonne*
La Vérité se montra ;
Le syndic la rencontra.
" *Que demandez vous, la bonne ?*"
" *Hélas ! l'hospitalité.*" —
" *Votre nom ?*" — " *La Vérité.*" —
" *Fuyez,*" *dit-il en colère,*
" *Fuyez, ou je monte en chaire,*
Et crie à l'impiété." —
" *Vous me chassez, mais j'espère*
Avoir mon tour, et j'attends ;
Car je suis fille du Temps,
Et j'obtiens tout de mon père."

IMITATED.

At ——— College, once of late
Was seen the modest face of Truth ;
The provost met the blushing youth,
And asked what brought him to their gate.
" 'Twas for admission, Sir, I came." —
" Your name, young man."—He gave his name.

"Fly," cried the doctor in a fury—
"Fly—or this instant I assure ye,
I'll bawl aloud, "*The Church in danger!*"
"You may refuse me," said the stranger,
"But, to your cost, you soon may learn
That Truth is sure to have his turn.
Old father *Time*, who is my sire,
Will grant whatever I require."

The epitaph on *Voltaire* by a lady of Lausanne is highly appropriate:

"*Ci gît l'enfant gâté du monde qu'il gâta.*"

The project for a statue of this extraordinary man occupied the attention of the world in 1770, to such a degree that most of the European sovereigns, and more particularly those of the North, subscribed to perpetuate the countenance of the writer whose works were gradually undermining their thrones, and the altars on which they rested. The patriarch appears to have discovered a considerable degree of coquetry on the occasion. We translate a letter from him to Madame *Necker*:

"21. May, 1770.

"My modesty, Madam, and my reason, induced me to believe at first that the idea of a statue was merely a pleasantry: but, as it is seriously intended, permit me to speak to you seriously.

"I am now seventy-six years old, and am hardly recovered from a severe illness which has excessively maltreated my body and soul for these six weeks. M. *Pigalle*, they tell me, is to come and model my face: but this must be intended on the supposition that I had one, whereas it would now be difficult to find it out. My eyes are sunken three inches deep, and my cheeks are like old parchment, ill glued down on bones which adhere to nothing. The few teeth that I had are gone. What I tell you is not a piece of affectation, it is the simple truth. Never was statue made of a poor man in such a plight. M. *Pigalle* would think you intended to ridicule him; and, as for myself, I have so much self-love that I should really be ashamed to appear in his presence. I should advise him, if he intends to bring this strange adventure to a conclusion, to take his model from the little figure of the Seves porcelaine. But, after all, what matters it to posterity whether a block of marble resembles this man or that? I am perfectly philosophical on that point. As, however, I am yet more grateful than philosophical, I give you over the remnant of my body the same power that you have over the remnant of my mind. Both of them are much out of order: but my heart is as entirely yours, Madam, as if I were only twenty five years of age, and this with the most sincere respect. Present my obedience, I intreat you, to M. *Necker*."

In spite of so much modesty, M. *Pigalle* set off on his journey for the purpose of modelling the remnant of *Voltaire*'s face, and most agreeably the work went on.

"*Phidias Pigalle*, it appears, remained a week at Ferney. The day before his departure, he had utterly failed in his object, and had determined to abandon the enterprize, on the plea that it was not feasible. Not but that the patriarch sat to him every day, but during the sitting he was, like a child, unable to be still for a moment. In general, he dictated letters to his secretary, while the artist was modelling him; and, as customary with him when so employed, he continued to shoot peas out of his mouth, or made a hundred grimaces which were so many death-blows to the statuary's art. The statuary was therefore in despair, and saw no alternative but to return, or fall ill at Ferney of a burning fever. At length, on the last day the conversation turned, luckily for the enterprize, on the golden calf of Aaron; and the patriarch was so delighted with *Pigalle* for requiring at least six months to model such a machine, that, during the rest of the sitting, the artist did what he would with him, and succeeded in making his model as he desired."

Such was the power of irreverence for the holy volume over *Voltaire*, that it would even make him sit still, and be docile and tractable. Besides the model, *Pigalle* brought a most favourable account of the patriarch's health. 'He assured me,' says GRIMM, 'that this Septuagenary ran up stairs quicker than all the subscribers to his statue put together, and was more alert in shutting a door, opening a window, or twirling round on one leg, than any of the persons around him.'

At repartees, *Voltaire* was ambi-dexter. An English traveller, on his way to Ferney, had met the celebrated *Haller*. On hearing that name, *Voltaire* was loud and copious in praise of his abilities. "Your praise," said the Englishman, "is the more generous, as it is unrequited on the part of M. *Haller*." "Alas," said the patriarch, "perhaps we are both mistaken." This, we think, is the *ne plus ultra* of repartee.

Jean Jacques Rousseau, whose subscription to the statue was not much relished by the patriarch, returned to Paris unexpectedly with Mademoiselle *Vasseur*, whom he had married some time before. He had left off the Armenian and resumed the French dress. An impertinent tale was current on this occasion, not wholly favourable to the reputation of Madame *Jean Jacques*, and yet less complimentary to the taste of the person who was her accomplice. It is said that her husband, on detecting her *in flagranti* with a monk, left off the Armenian habit, declaring that he had only worn it for the purpose of assuming an exterior different from other men, but that he now saw he was merely an every-day mortal. It was, however, shrewdly suspected that the charms of Paris had more effect in inducing *Jean Jacques* to change his dress than the frolics of *Madame Rousseau*. On this condition, and on that of publishing nothing for the future, he obtained permission from the

Attorney-General to return.—His arrival created a great sensation at Paris. That city was necessary to him. In those nations in which unfettered genius, as it is called, marks out its way to fame by extravagances relieved by an occasional beauty, the country, or a foreign land, are no obstacles in the way of the candidate: but in France, where genius itself makes but small impression unless aided by taste, the metropolis is requisite to the writer during the period of his exertions, and when they have arrived at their close. Paris and its society directed and rewarded *Rousseau*'s labours: at his return, he was every where followed; and, as he had prevailed on himself to leave his bear's skin behind, he became one of the favoured guests among the *élite d' élite* of *petits-maîtres* at *Sophie Arnoud*'s and elsewhere.—The eventful life of this vain and unhappy man is frequently introduced in these volumes; the adventure of the dog, which figures so mournfully in the history of his solitary walks, is cited; and a curious and incredibly absurd story is inserted of a dispute between him and a *Curé* at the table of Baron *d'Holbach*, which, as it rests on no other authority than that of the Baron, whose account of England is one tissue of wilful, stupid, and calumnious falsehoods, we totally disbelieve. That the death of *Rousseau* is attributable to poison, the investigation brought to light by these memoirs appears clearly to establish.

The account of the chemist *Rouelle* is highly entertaining. This man introduced by instinct (for he was too illiterate to master the science by any other process) the system of *Sthal*, and advanced this study to a great degree of perfection among his countrymen. He must be considered as the father of chemistry in France; yet his name will be lost, because he had not received an education that enabled him to publish an account of his discoveries; and because all the great chemists of that day were brought up in his school, obtained possession of the fruits of his labours, and gave them to the world as their own. 'These larcenies engaged the master and his disciples in perpetual quarrels. He avenged himself on their ingratitude by inveighing against them in public and private; and it was well known whose portrait would be drawn before the lecture began. He called them openly *ignoramuses*, barbers, fools, and *plagiaries*. This last term of reproach assumed in his imagination so odious a meaning, that it was applied by him to the greatest criminals; and he could invent no expression to signify his horror of *Damiens*'s atrocious deed so strongly as that of *plagiary*.' All his sufferings arose from this source. It became a species of madness. His utmost indignation could not devise a term so horrible as that of *plagiary*; and when he received the news of the battle of Rosbach, in which the Prussians had defeated his countymen, his national pride found its only consolation in this summary sentence on the characters and conduct of the hostile Generals: — "They are a set of *plagiaries*, to a man," said he, and he felt immediate relief from the assertion.

D'Alembert's name arrests us as we approach to the close of our account of this entertaining publication. This philosopher, endowed with many and various attainments, was indebted for high reputation to his knowlege of geometry. He began and closed his career with *Diderot*. If *D'Alembert* had only added to the discoveries of *Euler*, of *Bernouilli*, and of *Newton*, he would surely be intitled to the rank of a great man: but the preface to the Encyclopédie, for extent and variety of disquisition, for arrangement and perspicuity, and for energy of style and manner, will ever be regarded as one of the noblest literary monuments that have been erected to the glory of human knowlege. His style, ever cold and dry, had few recommendations beyond elegance and clearness; imagination, and what is termed *soul*, belonged not to his temperament: but, in the expression of the hardiest truths, he extorts admiration by the art, which was singularly his own, of preserving his temper, appearing to respect his antagonists, and confounding them by the authority of his proofs and illustrations. His minor productions must be read with indulgence, because they were probably rather the inspirations of his mistress than the suggestions of his own more sober judgment. His pride consisted in the ascendancy which he had obtained over the two academies; an ascendancy which the present author attributes rather to the intrigues of Mademoiselle *l'Espinasse* than to any general acknowlegement of his literary superiority. The death of this lady, which left him to his own resources, considerably weakened his academical influence.

'The society at *d'Alembert*'s house was for many years one of the most brilliant that could possibly be assembled: but it was far more promiscuous, and for that reason far less agreeable, after the death of his female friend. His own conversation presented all that could delight and instruct the mind. He could unbend with equal ease and compliance to the topic which was of most general interest: and he brought to the discussion an engaging *bonhomie* and simplicity, with an enexhaustible fund of ideas, anecdotes, and curious recollections. It would be difficult to conceive a subject, however dry or frivolous, which he had not the secret of rendering agreeable. He spoke well, told stories with precision, and elicited the point of an anecdote with a grace and aptness peculiar to himself. All his sayings possess a delicate and profound character of research. "*Who is happy?*" — "*Some miserable man,*" — is a trait of which Diogenes would have been jealous.

'If it be true that nature had conferred on the ladies but few titles to the affections of this philosopher, it is still more true that he was not the less submissive to their empire; he was the most amorous of all slaves, and the most slavish of all the amorous. When he had risen high in public opinion, (and this was almost the only fund on which he was at that time supported *,) a woman as coquettish as frivolous took it into her head to reduce him to subjection. She obtained such possession of him, that he soon neglected all his affairs and all his studies; and perhaps she would have utterly ruined him, if Madame *Geoffrin*, who had been apprized of it, had not undertaken to interfere, with all the address and all the firmness of character which true friendship can inspire. She went to see the lady in question, although she had no knowlege of her; represented to her the irreparable injury that she was doing to her friend, and doing, according to all appearance, without any advantage; obtained possession of all the letters that she had received from him; and drew from her a solemn promise never to admit him again.

'Nothing can equal the prodigious ascendency which Mlle. *l'Espinasse* had acquired over all his thoughts and actions. Although he once revolted from so harsh a tyranny, he did not support the yoke with less devotion. Not a poor Savoyard at Paris performs more tiresome errands, or is more *on the tramp*, than the first geometrician of Europe, — the chief of the sect of Encyclopædists, the dictator of our academies, the philosopher who had the honour of refusing the glory attached to the preceptor of the heir to the most immense empire, — performed every morning in the service of Mlle. *l'Espinasse*; — neither is this all that she had the effrontery to demand of him. Reduced to be the confidant of the tender passion which she had conceived for a young Spaniard, M. *de Thora*, he was charged with all the arrangements which were to favor the intrigue; and, when his happy rival had quitted France, he was appointed to go and wait, at the general post-office, for the arrival of the courier, to procure for this lady the pleasure of receiving her letters a quarter of an hour sooner!

'This servitude to the will of Mlle. *l'Espinasse* is rather honourable to one sex than degrading to the other; it only proves how very little influence our systems have, whatever name we may give them, over our character and natural affections. The same disposition which subjected this philosopher to the caprices of his fair friend prompted him to say, in the fear which his sufferings and the approach of his death excited, "*Happy they who have courage; for myself I have none.*" This confession manifests a *bonhomie* far preferable, perhaps, to the ostentation of a sentiment which is scarcely natural in the heart of man, and which in fact is much more rare than we imagine.

'* M. *d'Alembert* was already a member of all the academies of Europe, when he possessed no more than from 12 to 1,500 livres (60l.) per ann. He was not much richer when he refused an income of 100,000 livres from the Empress of Russia, to undertake the instruction of his Imperial Highness.'

‘ It is well known that his first name was *Jean Le Rond*. A natural son of M. *Destouches* and Madame *la Chanoinesse de Tencin*, he was exposed on the steps of the church of Saint-Jean-le-Rond, and thence carried to the Foundling Hospital. His father took him from this asylum, and put him out to nurse with a glazier's wife named *Rousseau*, *rue Michel-le-Comte*, who suckled him, and reared him with great trouble on account of the extreme delicacy of his constitution. Indeed, he was so sickly that she refused at first to undertake the charge. A short time before his departure for Russia, his mother desired to see him: but it was with difficulty that he could be induced to accept the invitation, and he would not go unaccompanied by his nurse. The interview was very cold on the part of M. *d'Alembert*. Madame de *Tencin*, disconcerted, said to him, “ But I am your mother.” — “ *You, my mother! no, here she is; I know no other.*” — He then threw himself on Madame *Rousseau*, whom he embraced, weeping in her arms.’

His conduct towards this good woman was highly honourable on an occasion of greater moment. At the death of her husband, the grand-children did all in their power to seize on her little property; “ *Let them take all*,” said *d'Alembert*, “ *I will never forsake you*,” and he kept his word to the day of her death.

No two characters and no two muses were more devotedly attached to pleasure than those of *Bernard* and *Pannard*, and no two persons could have sought pleasure by more contrary ways. *Bernard*, who merited and acquired from his politeness the surname of *gentil*, was considered as the Anacreon of the French; an Anacreon, indeed, well frizzed, powdered, and perfumed with musk; — an Anacreon in yellow slippers, and soft silken morning gown, a recliner on sofas, the friend, companion, and confidant of every Parisian belle, and the envy of every Parisian beau. Whatever opinion may be formed of his genius from his two operas, *Castor and Pollux*, and *The Surprizes of Love*, or from his Poems on the *Art of Love* and *Phrosine and Mélidore*, he cannot be denied the merit of having written the two best odes in the French language; and the Ode to the Rose will be read and admired when the works of many of his detractors have paid their debt to time.

‘ It might be said that he had rendered all his sentiments and all his passions subservient to that spirit of gallantry which is the prevailing character of his works; and perhaps the world never saw a philosopher so consistent, so faithful to his principles as *Bernard*. His epicurism possessed an admirable uniformity; a certain evenness, better supported and more regular than the stoicism of Epictetus or of Cato. He had arranged his plan of *existence* as he would arrange the plan of an opera: he had prepared festivals for every season of his life; and, if fate had not interfered with these flattering projects, no one would have met with more complete success. He had found the wondrous secret of culling flowers in every place, and of gathering them almost without a thorn. Few men have been better treated by the ladies, and few have known how to enjoy that favor with less trouble and perplexity; yet none have less indulged in personal vanity. Few men of letters have tasted more deliciously all the delights of literary glory, and none have set in play fewer engines to secure it. Born poor, he had the advantage of acquiring a considerable fortune, and obtained it without meanness or disagreeable labour. Every thing concurred to promise him the most happy old age, when he was attacked suddenly by a very singular malady: which was for a long time considered to be the effect of too great a succession of pleasures, to which he had devoted himself indeed with much moderation, although he strove to preserve them beyond the time permitted by nature.'

The malady which interrupted his easy and voluptuous life was as singular as that life itself, and as his character. It was a kind of absence of mind, which left to his ideas their habitual *tournure*, but broke their connection with each other, and destroyed that consistency which constitutes personality. He recognized his accustomed friends, and addressed them with the same elegant choice of expressions as in his happier days: but his memory was alive only by fits and starts; and he forgot what he had said and done, and what he had proposed to say and do. He became the ghost of his former self; and, like the fabled ghosts of old, he yet lingered in the places which he most delighted to frequent. The opera, the promenade, the *fête*, were yet dear to him from habit. He had placed his bust at the entrance of his wine-cellar, and, with a presentiment of his fate, had given to it this inscription:

"*Redoutable tyran des morts,*
À tes loix puisqu'il faut se rendre,
J'habiterai ces lieux voisins des sombres bords;
Libre, sans crainte et sans remords,
C'est par là que j'y veux descendre."

The vast obituary contained in these memoirs comprizes a history of longevity which would be incredible were it not authentic. Are we to attribute it to the easy circumstances enjoyed by the literary men of France, and to the benevolence and liberality of the nobles, as well as of the people, whose honor was concerned in the literature of their nation? — Besides the office of librarian at Choisy, to which Louis XV. had appointed *Bernard*, he presented him with another lucrative post, and with an estate at Choisy, where his friends enabled him to build an elegant country-house.

Having mentioned the celebrated Ode to the Rose by *Gentil Bernard*, we subjoin a translation of it, which has at least the merit of closeness:

The Rose.

Fruit of the tears of soft Aurora,
Whose kiss to Zephyr lends perfume,
Queen o'er the lovely realm of Flora,
Haste thee,—the season bids thee bloom.

Alas! what said I? Yet forego
Awhile to face the flaunting day;
The instant that shall see thee blow
Is that which sees thee fade away.

Flower of the spring, Themira grows;—
Your lustre and your fate agree;
'Tis thine like her to bloom, sweet Rose;
'Tis hers to pass away like thee.

Come from thy thorny stem, to grace
That airy form, without a peer;
There shalt thou triumph in thy place
As in the palm of beauty here.

Go, die upon Themira's breast,
There find alike a throne and tomb;
While, jealous to behold thee blest,
I languish for so sweet a doom.

That dwelling, Rose, thou shalt adorn;
And when 'tis thine of bliss to die,
A sigh shall bid thee smile new-born,
If fair Themira knows to sigh.

By Love thou shalt not bloom forgot;
T' obey his orders be thy pride:
Delight her eyes, but hurt them not;
Her bosom grace, but do not hide.

Should any hand profanely dare
To come and trouble thy repose,
Reserve a thorn against the snare,
And treat my rivals as thy foes.

Pannard was somewhat more of an English Anacreon. He busied himself little with the ladies, but was tenderly respectful to his bottle. This man, however, has insinuated his name into every collection of French metrical trifles. "He was a fellow of infinite wit," *chansonnier*, and drunkard by profession. Of the two accounts given of him and his companion *Galais* by Grimm and *Marmontel*, we prefer the latter:

"*Pannard*, *Galais*, and company passed their days in the tippling-house, and carried their thoughtlessness about life (*le désouci*) to the highest pitch. *Galais* had been a grocer, and a bankrupt. Two hours before his death, he sent some couplets to *Pannard*. "I had proposed," said he, "to write some more, but a certain sexton is waiting for me, attended by a gallant company."*

Galais was among the number of *Marmontel*'s acquaintance. After his bankruptcy, he fled to the Temple, to which neighbourhood the same privileges were attached as to Holyrood-house, the Isle of Man, &c. This asylum, however, did not secure him from the bills of his creditors, whose tender recollections appear to have followed him into his retreat with a frequency bordering on importunity. "*Me voici*," said he to one of his visitors, *logé au temple des mémoires*."

The good man *Pannard* had so tender an affection for wine, that he spoke of it always as of the friend of his heart; and, glass in hand, with his eyes fixed on the object of his worship, he indulged this soft emotion even to tears. Speaking of his friend *Galais*, he said, "You know that he died at the Temple; I have been there to weep over his tomb; and what a tomb! Ah, Sir, they have buried him under a *spout;* him who never, since the age of reason, had tasted a glass of water." The lines whence the following translation has been made have by mistake been attributed to M. *Desforges Maillard:* — we restore them to *Pannard*, to whom they properly belong:

A lover once of the Septembrian juice
Had of the aforesaid made such copious use,
  That ways and means to him were wanting
    An easy stair-case to ascend;
  When, after many steps now round, now slanting,
    That led him farther from his journey's end,
With an unlucky stair his foot engages.
  He fell, and with a hiccough swore,
  Proud as a patriarch of yore,
They built most scurvily in former ages.

Among other visitors at Paris was the celebrated Franklin:

'Dr. Franklin,' says the author, 'speaks little; and at the beginning of his sojourn at Paris, when France yet refused to declare herself openly in favour of the colonists, he spoke still less. At a dinner among wits, one of the guests, to encourage conversation, bethought himself of saying; "It must be confessed, Sir, that America presents to us at this day a grand and magnificent spectacle." "Yes," answered the Doctor of Philadelphia, with great modesty, "but the spectators pay nothing for seeing it." — They have since paid most liberally.'

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* The French expression is highly ludicrous; "*Accompagné de plusieurs autres*;" the humour of which can be felt only by those who are familiar with the *Vaudeville* whence these words are taken.

It would be easy to fill more of our pages with anecdotes and witticisms extracted from this amusing and instructive work: but we have been desirous of presenting to our readers the picture of Paris, and of Parisians, rather than of selecting materials for a jest-book; and, in our quotations, we have been guided by a preference for the prominent features which characterize the publication.

Those who search even for grave discussion will find it in these volumes; those who look for examples of virtue will not be disappointed; and those who seek the reverse will find them every where. The stores contained in these memoirs are inexhaustible; and, were we still to prolong our article, so much would remain unsaid, that, in the despair of laying before our readers all that is prominently good, we must now content ourselves with general commendation. We do not attempt to disguise that the eternal sittings of the Academy, with the eternal eulogies pronounced occasionally on men of genius, but often on those of more moderate pretensions, offended and fatigued us; and, as we have had the opportunity of comparing the original work with the seven volumes extracted from it, we cannot but think that these drowsy doses of academical mannerism might have been omitted to the great advantage of the selection; nay, more, that they might have been replaced by essays of infinite liveliness and ingenuity. The abridgment, however, as published in this country, is in general made with care and discrimination, and will doubtless strike the deepest root in England.

Art. XII. *Mémoires de la Classe des Sciences,* &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of France, Vols. VII.—X.

[*Article continued from the Appendix to* Vol. lxxiii. p. 501—510.]

PHYSICAL PART. Vol. IX.

In the historical part of this volume, the discoveries and improvements that have been made in the different branches of natural philosophy, during the course of the year 1808, are detailed in the usual manner, by M. Cuvier. Under the head of chemistry, Sir H. Davy's experiments on the decomposition of the fixed alkalies hold the first rank; of the others, those of M. M. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thenard* on boracic acid, those of Sir J. Hall on the effects of heat modified by pressure, those of M. *de Morveau* on pyrometry, of M. *Gay-Lussac* on the mutual decomposition of metals, and of MM. *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin* on animal mucus, are mentioned as the most interesting and important. In the class of anatomy, the new method of dissecting the brain practised by Dr. *Gall* is mentioned; and, on Vegetable Physiology, the observations of *Mirbel* respecting the organization of plants. A number of individual essays on different parts of natural history, mineralogy, and geology, are specified; with some medical treatises by *Seguin*, *Portal*, *Pelletan*, and *Scarpa*. Several of these subjects have already come under our review, and others of them will be farther noticed in the present article.

Two biographical sketches are furnished by M. CUVIER, relative to *Lassus* and *Ventenat*. The former is described rather as an useful than as a splendid character. His father was a respectable surgeon, and the son was, from his youth, destined to the same profession. Soon after his entrance into public life, he obtained an appointment at court; where an accident happened to him, apparently of a very unfortunate kind, but which, from the generous conduct of one of the princesses, led to his future advancement. When the Princess emigrated from France, at the commencement of the Revolution, *Lassus* felt himself prompted by gratitude to accompany her in her flight: but he was permitted, after some time, to return to his native country, and was appointed a professor in the new college. He died suddenly in the year 1807, at the age of 76. He contributed to advance the knowlege of his profession by translating into French some of the most valuable English treatises; among others, those of Pott, Sharpe, and Alanson. He was for some years a public lecturer, and was much respected by his pupils.

Ventenat was born at Limoges in 1757, and was destined by his relatives for the ecclesiastical profession: but he soon manifested a decided preference for philosophical pursuits, and particularly for botany; which finally led him to renounce the priesthood, and to devote himself entirely to the study of that science. Having travelled to England in pursuit of his favorite object, on his return the vessel was wrecked; he was in the most imminent danger of perishing; and he never entirely recovered from the hardships which he experienced on that occasion. He is described as a man of much zeal and activity, but of a temper so irritable as to have had his health materially impaired by his peculiar state of mind. His principal merit as a botanist seems to have been derived from his accuracy in the description and delineation of plants; and he had full scope for the display of his talent in the splendid publications on the Gardens of *Cels* and of *Malmaison*, of which he was the editor.

Report on a Memoir of MM. Gall and Spurzheim, relative to the Anatomy of the Brain, made in the Name of a Commission composed

posed of MM. Tenon, Portal, Sabatier, Pinel, and Cuvier. By M. CUVIER, *the Reporter.*—As this communication has been for some time in the possession of the English reader, through the medium of the Edinburgh Medical Journal, we shall not here give any account of its contents: merely stating that our opinion of the value of Dr. *Gall's* anatomical labours coincides with that of the reporter.

Report on a new Stocking-frame invented by M. Coutan, hosier, made in the Name of a Commission composed of MM. Monge, Perrier, and Desmarest. By M. DESMAREST, *Reporter.*—The invention here described is said to possess much ingenuity. It is a subject which appears to have been of late particularly cultivated by the French artists, but we apprehend that their machinery in this manufacture is still very much inferior to that of the English.

In the account of the distribution of the prizes, we are informed that the question respecting the phænomena of hybernation, which had been proposed two years before, has been answered by M. *Saissy*, a physician at Colle, to whom the prize was adjudged: but we have no account of the memoir. The question respecting the causes of phosphorescence produced three papers, all of which appear to have possessed some merit; the prize was finally decreed to M. *Dessaignes* of Vendome. The Galvanic prize of 1807 was given to M. *Erman* of Berlin; that of 1808 to Sir H. Davy.

MEMOIRS.

Observations on the Distillation of Wines. By M. CHAPTAL.—The process of the distillation of wine, as practised in the south of France for the preparation of brandy, appears to be performed in a variety of methods, according to the ingenuity or the caprice of different individuals; and the object of this paper is to supply an account of some of these methods, and to compare their merits. The most important circumstance in this manufacture is the form of the apparatus; and particularly the manner in which the heat is applied, and the vapour condensed. The author gives a short sketch of the various improvements that have taken place in the process of distillation, from the time of the alchemists to the present period; and he enters very fully into the description of some of the latest inventions that have been adopted in France. No doubt, M. CHAPTAL is thoroughly master of the subject on which he treats; and his papers will be interesting to those who are engaged in a manufacture of this description.

Account of the different Species of the Ash which are cultivated in the Gardens and Nurseries in the neighbourhood of Paris. By M. Bosc. — This paper is similar in its design and execution to one by the same author on the Oak, which was inserted in the last volume of the Memoirs. He has in this, as in the former case, brought into view a much greater number of species than were before supposed to exist; enumerating above 30 different kind of Ashes, besides some others, respecting which he is doubtful whether they are more than mere varieties. Of these, only two appear to be natives of France, the *Fraxinus excelsior*, and the *Fraxinus ornus*; almost all the remainder being derived from America. The author's remarks respecting the management of these trees are very clear and judicious, but are not in all cases applicable to the climate of England.

Notice respecting some Colors found at Pompeii. By M. Chaptal. — The ingenious writer here informs us that he obtained possession of 7 different kinds of colors, which were found in a shop among the ruins of Pompeii. One of them was a greenish clay, two were oxyds of iron, and another was the powder of pumice; all of them nearly in their natural state. The three others had been prepared artificially. One was a rich deep blue, which, from his analysis, the author supposes to be composed of oxyd of copper, lime, and alumine, reduced to a half vitrified state. Another was likewise of a blue color, but of a lighter shade, and containing some white particles interspersed through it; it appeared to be of the same nature with the former, but to include more lime and alumine. The last of these colors was a beautiful red, and seemed to be a proper lake, similar to that which is manufactured by the moderns. M. Chaptal conjectures that these pigments were destined for coloring earthen ware; and he observes that the earthen ware of the antients was exposed to a considerably less degree of heat than the pottery made in our times.

Essay on the Properties and Uses of Animal Mucus. By MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin. — In the opinion of the present authors, this substance, which is one of the most frequent constituents of the animal fluids, has not yet been accurately characterized; and the object of this memoir is to supply the deficiency. For this purpose, they enumerate the parts of the body from which it is secreted; describe its physical properties, and the action of chemical re-agents on it; and discriminate it from the two substances with which they suppose it is the most likely to be confounded, albumen and gelatin. It neither coagulates by heat like the first of these substances, nor does it congeal by cold like the second. They imagine that it forms the solid part of the matter of perspiration; and that, when the water is evaporated, the mucus is left on the skin in the form of scales. Mixed with an oily matter, it forms the epidermis; and it also enters largely into the composition of the hair and nails, and other similar parts. It is found in many of the animal secretions, but in those only which proceed from what are called the mucous membranes. One of its most useful properties is that of lubricating the different parts, and defending them from the action of chemical or mechanical stimuli. The authors mention, as a characteristic property of mucus, that it is soluble in very weak acids, by which means, it is held in solution in the urine; and, if by any cause this fluid loses its acid, the mucus is precipitated from it, and may form the basis of a calculus. This hypothesis of the origin of calculus appears to us very dubious, and incompatible with some well established facts; which would tend to indicate that an *excess* of acid is a more frequent cause of disease than a *deficiency*.

Memoir on a new Genus of the Palm. By M. La Billardiere. — The new Palm described in this paper is a native of New Ireland, an island to the N. E. of New Holland. Its greatest singularity consists in the extreme disproportion between the length and the thickness of the stem, so that it rises to the height of more than 60 feet, although it does not exceed two or three inches in diameter. From the form of its seed, M. La Billardiere has given to it the generic name of *Ptychosperma*; and, from its thin stem, the specific name of *gracilis*.

Anatomical and Physiological Observations on the Growth and Developement of Vegetables. By M. Mirbel. — The object of this paper is to explain the manner in which the different organs of vegetables are successively formed and developed; and the author therefore gives a minute account of a series of observations which he made on the kidney-bean, at the different periods of its growth. Having described the structure of the seed before it has begun to vegetate, he specifies the changes which it experiences in what he terms its first period of developement, when the little plant begins to be formed, and the cotyledons rise above the ground. A network of vessels is distributed through the substance of the cotyledons, which M. Mirbel calls the mammary vessels; and these are sent into the radicle, which is the part that first extends itself. The fluid contained in these vessels then ascends from the radicle into the plumula, without again entering into the cotyledons. These vessels are principally of the kind which the author denominates tracheæ, the spiral tubes of the English botanists. Besides the vessels of this description, there are others which he names porous vessels, false tracheæ, and mixed vessels. The first, as the name implies, have their sides pierced with a number of small apertures; the false tracheæ have their coats marked with clefts, as if they were composed of proper spires, but the spires are not separable from each other; and the mixed vessels exhibit all the different kinds of structure in their passage along the different parts of the plant.

The second developement of the plant takes place when it has attained the height of two or three inches above the ground. The pith of the stem is fully formed, and it is always surrounded by a cylinder of tracheæ; beyond these are false tracheæ, and the porous and mixed vessels. Another species of vessels now come into view, which he calls beaded vessels; and which seem to be composed of the cavities of the cellular texture, lengthened out into an oval form, and communicating with each other by small apertures. — The third period of developement is when all the parts of the plant are fully formed. An important change, which is now observed to have occurred, is the filling up of the tracheæ which are nearest to the pith; they are at first lined with a compact paste, which increases in quantity, until their coats are rendered solid through their whole extent; and they are at length quite filled up. — M. MIRBEL concludes his paper by some remarks on the opinion of *Hedwig*, that the spires of the tracheæ are themselves tubular, and contain a fluid, while the central cavity contains air. He does not conceive that we have any evidence of the tubular nature of the spires; and he supposes that the central tubes may, according to circumstances, contain either fluid or air.

Observations on a System of the Comparative Anatomy of Vegetables, founded on the Organization of the Flower. By the Same. — It is the object of this paper to ascertain whether any characters exist in the internal structure of plants, by which the different genera may be distinguished from each other. The author supposed that this object might probably be accomplished by attending to the number and arrangement of the vessels which serve for the foundation and nutrition of the germen, and he accordingly made a very minute examination of these parts. He traced the vessels in their progress through every part of the flower; beginning at the foot-stalk, proceeding to the calyx, the corolla, the stamens, pistils, and lastly the germen itself. Without the aid of the plates which accompany this paper, it would be impossible to follow M. MIRBEL through all his details; and we must content ourselves with pointing out a few of the most important of his observations.

He discovered in the foot-stalk a difference in the distribution of the vessels in the monocotyledonous and the dicotyledonous seeds; in the former, they are in separate threads; in the latter, they completely inclose the pith. The tracheæ are never found except in soft parts, and such as extend themselves rapidly. No precise line of distinction can be drawn between the calyx and the corolla; and Linné's idea that the one is produced from the proper bark and the other from the liber seems to be without foundation, because those parts contain no tracheæ, while tracheæ are found plentifully both in the calyx and the corolla. The distribution of the vessels that go to the stamens is very various, and seems to shew that no connection exists between the situation of the stamens and the natural characters of the plant. The vessels which pass to the pistil are distributed over the ovary and the placenta; their situation and direction are very various; and M. MIRBEL has made many minute observations on this subject, which are well illustrated by the plates.

We have next some remarks on the glandular bodies which are attached to flowers: some of these appear to be composed merely of cellular substance; while others have a number of tracheæ obviously ramifying among the cells. These evidently serve for the secretion of particular fluids, and seem to be analogous to the conglomerate glands in the animal body.— On the whole, we may conclude that the investigations of M. MIRBEL are curious, and intitle him to much credit for industry and ingenuity. In the present state of botanical science, it seems scarcely possible to realize his project: but his observations, besides the immediate information which they convey, cannot fail very much to increase our knowlege of the physiology of vegetables.

An Essay on Pyrometry, or a Memoir on the different Means of determining the Degrees of Heat in the highest Temperatures, the Use to which they may be applied, the Degree of Confidence which they deserve, and the Advantages which the Pyrometer of Platina possesses, as well for Philosophical Researches as for the Purposes of the Artist. By M GUYTON DE MORVEAU.—This appears to be only the first part of the author's proposed treatises on the subject, and is occupied almost entirely by a sketch of what had been previously done by others. The most valuable portion of it consists of a table in which are inserted, in corresponding columns, the results that had been obtained by former experimentalists; and they differ so much from each other as to prove the importance of the investigation, which could not be in better hands than those of M. DE MORVEAU. His own observations will form the subject of a future memoir.

MATHEMATICS, and ASTRONOMY.

In the *History of the Class*, M. DELAMBRE pays some well-merited compliments to *La Place* and *Lagrange*, for their respective solutions of a very interesting problem, relating to the stability of the solar system; or rather of the permanent magnitude of the major axis of the planetary orbits, and consequently of the mean periods of revolution. He observes that it is particularly worthy of attention that both these memoirs have been occasioned by another, not less interesting, lately read to the class by a young geometer, (*Poisson*,) their worthy pupil; who, in the very first steps of his career, has placed himself in the rank of the most distinguished masters.

The acceleration of the moon, although it had been proved to be restrained within limits, after which it will experience a similar retardation, made it suspected that the same fact might have place with regard to the earth and the other planets: whereas astronomers had always conducted their calculations on the supposition of its uniformity. This problem, therefore, viz. to ascertain whether or not the earth was subject to any such acceleration, became one of great importance in the present advanced state of astronomical science; and *La Place* had accordingly occupied himself some years ago on this subject, and had indeed demonstrated approximatively the permanent magnitude of the major axis: but, having, for the sake of simplifying the calculation, employed only the first powers of the masses, and the third of the excentricities and inclinations, some doubt still remained as to the rejected quantities. This circumstance gave rise to a memoir by *Lagrange*, which was published in the memoirs of the Berlin Academy, in which he proved the same as *La Place*, retaining all the successive powers of the two latter quantities, but still employing only the first powers of the masses. In this state, the problem remained till *Poisson* demonstrated the same, including the second power of the masses. Some ideas thrown out by the author of this paper (of which he did not, as it frequently happens, see the full advantage,) again drew the attention both of *Lagrange* and *La Place* to the same problem; both of whom succeeded in giving it a full and complete demonstration, but on principles totally different from each other, and by which the stability of the solar system under the present order of things is placed beyond every possible doubt.

The above is the only subject introduced into the History, under the head of mathematical discovery. The writer then passes in review a few new works published in the course of the year; beginning with the new edition of *Lagrange*'s tract on the solutions of numerical equations; and remarking some of its additions, particularly a note in which the author has shewn the application of his method to *Gauss's* problems relating to the solution of binomial equations having prime indexes of the form $2^m + 1$. We shall avail ourselves of this opportunity to offer a few observations on the nature of this work, which seems to be much misunderstood in England. It is commonly thought to offer an infallible practical method for the solution of numerical equations, which, though admitted to be long and tedious, may (it is supposed) still be employed for that purpose; whereas we much question whether, since its first publication, a single equation higher than a cubic has ever been solved by it. In fact, it can only be viewed as a very ingenious and elegant theory of numerical equations, but which at the same time furnishes no practical solution of those of high dimensions. When we consider that it requires us, first, to find the equation of differences, which rises to the degree $\frac{m(m-1)}{1 \cdot 2}$, that of the original equation being m, and afterward to obtain the limits of the roots of this new equation, before we begin to enter on the solution of the one proposed; — that we have then to find the nearest integral root of each new resulting equation, for every new figure obtained in our approximation; — after which, the continued fraction is to be converted into a series of converging fractions, and these again into decimals, and that the same is to be repeated for each of the possible roots of the proposed equation; — when, we say, these processes are properly appreciated, it will not be denied that, though *Lagrange's* method offers a rule for the general solution of numerical equations, it must be regarded as merely theoretical, and not as supplying any practical solution of the higher equations.

M. Delambre next gives a short notice of the third edition of *La Place's* Exposition of the System of the World, and the second edition of *Legendre's* Theory of Numbers; and, lastly, an account at some length of the *Exposé des resultats des grandes opérations Géodesiques, faites en France et Espagne, par MM. Biot et Arago.* Nothing very particular occurs in this report, except the astonishing coincidence of the measured arc, or that which was obtained from the geodetic operations, with the same as deduced from astronomical observation; the latter giving 1374439.13 and the former 1374438.72 metres, being a difference of only 0.41 metres, or about half a yard in an arc comprehending nearly 14 degrees of latitude. It may not, however, be amiss to observe that this coincidence arises from assuming a compression of [illegible] as deduced

from

›m the theory of the moon; and not one of between $\frac{1}{315}$
d $\frac{1}{310}$, as assumed by Don J. Rodriguez in his memoir,
iich fell under our strictures in the Rev. for April last,
385., and which we have since seen noticed by DELAMBRE
mself: who, like us, and on the same principles, denies the
gality of that author's conclusion.

A short notice of a memoir by *La Place*, on the double re-
ction of light in diaphanous crystals, concludes this part of
e present volume.

Historical Account of the Life and Writings of F. Berthoud,
M. DELAMBRE. — This paper presents nothing very in-
esting: but the subject of it was highly celebrated for his
chanical talents, particularly in his construction of chrono-
ters, being the first who succeeded in this respect in France,
Harrison was the first in England. He was also the author
a valuable treatise "*de la Mesure des Temps*;" in which he
ems to have had the laudable desire of doing strict justice to
those who, by their mechanical talents and ingenuity, have
en the means of bringing horology to its present state of per-
ction. His extreme predilection for his art, however, and his
thusiasm for great artists, led him into some rather illiberal
mparisons with regard to the latter and men of science. —
erthoud was born in Swisserland in 1727, and died in 1807,
Groslay in the valley of Montmorency.

Report on a reflecting Sextant of M. Lenoir, by M. BURCKHARDT.
his report relates to a sextant of rather a new construction,
r the convenience of taking terrestrial elevations: but it is not
sufficient importance to require our particular notice.

*Presentation of the Report of the Progress of the Mathematical
d Philosophical Sciences from* 1789 *to* 1807, *to his Imperial and
oyal Majesty in his Council of State*, Feb. 16. 1808. — We
ve here a very interesting report, though the altered condition
the individual to whom it was addressed renders some of the
mpliments bestowed on him rather *bizarre*.

The deputation of the classes was composed of their late
orthy president *Bougainville*, *Tenon* vice-president, *Delambre*,
d *Cuvier*, secretaries, and *Lagrange*, *Monge*, *Messier*, *Fleurieu*,
. *Berthollet*, *Haüy*, *Lamarck*, *Thouin*, *Lacepède*, and *Desses-
rts*, members. M. *Delambre* read his report relative to the ma-
ematical sciences; mentioning slightly the elementary treatises
geometry by *Lacroix* and *Legendre*, the translation of the
reek mathematicians into French by *Peyrard*, the new species
geometry (geometry of the compasses) by *Mascheroni*, (which,
observes, was brought into France with the treaty of Campo
ormio,) and the descriptive geometry of *Monge*. He next
ters at some length into the extensive geodetic operations

which had been carrying on in France during nearly all the stormy period of the revolution, and which he states have spread a taste for Geodesia in almost every nation; and he concludes by observing that we may now soon hope to see the whole surface of Europe covered with triangles, so that sovereigns will hereafter know the extent of their territories more accurately than individual proprietors know their own estates. He then alludes to the decimal division of the circle; and the immense tables which have been computed for the application of it to trigonometry are mentioned with the eulogium which they so well deserve. — Analysis is the next subject brought under review, in which the discoveries of *La Place*, *Lagrange*, and *Gauss*, stand most conspicuous; and thence the speaker passes to the works of *Lacroix*, *Legendre*, *Poisson*, and *Carnet*, paying merited compliments to the talents of their respective authors. — From analysis, he proceeds to mechanics; where again *La Place*, *Lagrange*, *Prony*, and *Poisson*, are introduced with great applause. Of the *Mécanique Céleste*, the reporter observes 'that, in this great work, in which every page glows with the true genius of analysis and the most important of all its applications, we perceive throughout entirely new theories of the author's own invention, or others which can be scarcely viewed in any secondary light, on account of the new forms which they have received in his hands.'

Astronomy furnishes a distinct head in this report, of which our limits will admit a very imperfect sketch. The astonishing progress made in that pursuit, during the period included in this paper, is certainly now, and probably ever will be, the most brilliant in the history of the sciences. Dr. Herschel, a short time before 1789, had discovered the *Georgium Sidus*; and he has since observed its six satellites, and two others belonging to Saturn. *Olbers*, on his part, has discovered two new planets; *Piazzi*, one; and lastly a fourth has been found by M. *Harding*; by which the permanent bodies of our system have been nearly doubled; while a great number of comets have likewise been observed during the same period. These discoveries, however, great as they are, and much as they are calculated to excite our admiration of the persevering industry and indefatigable exertions of their respective authors, are by far the least important of the astronomical improvements of the above period. The singular perfection which the necessary instruments have now attained, the minute accuracy of observation, and the profound investigations of modern astronomers, have brought the science to that state which leaves scarcely any thing to be desired, except simplification.

Having done ample justice to the science and professors of astronomy, the author passes rapidly over the subjects of mathematics, physics, and geography, in which the details are scanty.

M. *Cuvier* next read his report of the physical sciences, which we have already noticed under that head in the present article.

MEMOIRS.

On the Theory of the Variations of the Elements of the Planets, and in particular on the variation of major axes of their orbits. By J. L. LAGRANGE. — We have had occasion to notice the purport of this memoir in the preceding part of this article: but it is impossible, within the limits which we are bound to observe, to give any adequate idea of the profound nature of the investigations of the author.

Third Memoir on the Measurement of Heights by the Barometer. By M. RAMOND. — This may be characterized as a *great* memoir on a *little* problem, containing about 100 quarto pages on the practical operations of levelling planes by means of the barometer. It gives the detail of several operations connected with this subject, and probably many good practical as well as theoretical maxims.

Memoir on the general Theory of the Variation of the arbitrary constant Quantities in all mechanical Problems. By J. L. LAGRANGE. — We have here a generalization of the author's preceding memoir. In that paper, he had applied his calculus merely to the perturbation of the planets, in which point his solution was complete, but it was confined to that problem only. In the present article, he shews its general application to any system of bodies, acting on each other according to any law; by which his former investigation becomes only a particular case of the general problem. Besides, also, the universality of the present calculus, it is much simplified; so that many intermediate steps being useless are omitted, and the author arrives at his general result by a much more direct and elegant method. In consequence, he has announced his intention of shewing its application, in some future memoir, to a problem equally interesting, but more difficult than the former. The system of the world, besides the perturbations of the planets to which the theory of the variations of the elements naturally apply, presents another highly important problem, susceptible of being submitted to the same theory; viz. the circumstances attending the rotation of the planets about their centres of gravity, considering them as not spherical, and having regard to the attraction of the other planets. This problem, like the former, depends on three differential equations of the second order, between three independent variable quantities; and, consequently,

sequently, the final expressions of these variables ought to include six constant arbitrary quantities, which we may regard as the elements of rotation, of which three relate to the rotation itself, and the three others to the plane to which we refer the rotation, as in the case of the movement of translation. These elements become variable by the perturbating forces of the other planets; and the determination of their variations, a problem which had never been attempted, is that which the learned author has proposed to investigate in some future memoir.

Supplement to the preceding Memoir. — We have stated that the author, in his last paper, had very considerably simplified as well as generalized his formulæ: still, however, it occupied forty pages, and required an uncommon degree of attention in the reader to follow the author through all the steps of the investigation: but the memoir was scarcely printed before he discovered that his general result, at which he had arrived only by means of a long and complicated analysis, might be deduced immediately from the primitive equations, in such a manner as not to occupy more than two or three pages. This deduction is made the subject of the present supplement.

General Formulæ for the higher Order of the Planetary Perturbations. By J. C. Burckhardt.—The purport of this memoir is sufficiently indicated in the title; and it is impossible to enter into any analysis of it within the limits of our article.

Memoir on various Means proper for perfecting Lunar Tables. By the Same.—We know that theory alone is not sufficient for determining, with the required degree of accuracy, the co-efficients of the lunar inequalities; and astronomers have therefore preferred to arrive at them by comparing a number of observations in which the inequality is the greatest; or, rather, the sum of the errors of the tables furnished by these observations, with a similar sum, where their greatest value is negative. The difference of the two sums, divided by the number of observations, will give the co-efficient sought: but, in order to use a greater number, we employ even those which are a little distant from the maximum, and search at the same time for each observation the sines of the argument; dividing the sum of the errors by the sum of the sines, instead of dividing by the number of observations. This is necessarily a very laborious computation; and M. Burckhardt's theorem for abridging it is all that we can give of the contents of this memoir; viz. *The mean sum of the sines of an infinite series of arcs in arithmetical progression, from* 90° to 90°—y, *is equal to the sine of the arc* y *divided by the arc itself.*

Vol. X. will be reported in our next Appendix.

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